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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 10, 1903.

The Week.

Secretary Root's annual report differs markedly from his previous ones in that it contains no recommendation for the betterment of the army by legislation. Further advances in the modernization of the army he is plainly content to leave to his successor. This decision we regret, because another word from him as to the reforms he leaves incomplete would still have great weight with Congress. Much as Mr. Root has done to improve the conditions in the staff departments, the reorganization can never be regarded as complete until there is a consolidation of the Quartermaster's, Commissary, and Pay Departments into a body which shall also have some of the duties now given to the Ordnance Corps. Meanwhile, as Mr. Root has himself said, the staff of the army will be cumbersome, inefficient, over-officered, and hydra-headed. There should be but one responsible head when it comes to paying and buying supplies for the army, precisely as in the navy. Mr. Root, as usual, gives a good deal of space to the militia, but he has little of importance to say, save to report progress under the new militia law. For the grave defects in that measure, which to many observers seem without remedy, he barely refers. As to the general condition of the army, Mr. Root admits that it has not yet got over the reorganization of 1901, which he superintended. He quotes the Chief of Artillery as reporting that only 34 per cent. of the artillery officers have had five years' experience, and also says that "the burden of the older and experienced officers has been increased by the fact that so large a proportion of the junior officers brought in upon the enlargement of the army were necessarily without much military experience." He might have written a most entertaining chapter on the low morale of the service as indicated by the many courts-martial, and also offered to explain why reorganization had to include so many aged and "political" officers.

The striking feature of Secretary Shaw's report is its evidence of gross extravagance in the conduct of the Government. It shows that while the receipts increased about $10,000,000 over the previous year, expenditures increased about $47,000,000. But that is the smallest part of the showing. Despite the fact just cited, there was a surplus for the year of over $54,000,000, whereas for the next few years it is extremely likely that the balance will be on the wrong side of the ledger. To be sure, a surplus of $14,000,000 is figured for 1904; but we have to compare this with the estimate of nearly $52,000,000 for that period which Secretary Shaw presented a year ago. Certainly, if the receipts and expenditures maintain the same relation for the remainder of the present fiscal year that has been witnessed so far, the Secretary's $14,000,000 surplus will "flit like a ghost away." When he comes to his 1905 estimates, the Secretary frankly admits a deficit of $23,000,000. This is, of course, a purely arbitrary figure; the real shortage will as likely as not greatly exceed this sum. It may be tolerably easy to calculate expenditures two years ahead, but under our revenue laws the Secretary of the Treasury is all at sea when he comes to forecasting his receipts. He may believe that he can call spirits from the vasty deep, but will they come when he doth call for them? A year or two of even moderate industrial depression would be apt to knock Mr. Shaw's 1905 revenue calculations into a cocked hat; the same may be true even of his 1904 figures. With this contingency staring it in the face, the nation is confronted with an increase of $87,000,000 in its annual outgo between 1903 and 1905. And the astonishing thing is that the Administration has embarked on this extravagance with its eyes open. It estimates that it will collect about $31,000,000 more in 1905 than in 1904; and then, in cold blood, it arranges to increase its expenditures nearly $67,000,000, knowing that it will thus create a deficit of $23,000,000. Secretary Shaw's figures show that the navy and the postal service are to be the chief beneficiaries of this extravagance.

One sign that the Administration is worried over the way the country is receiving its headlong Panama policy is betrayed in the announcement that there was dread of "foreign interference." That was the reason we had to rush matters. If we had not promptly taken in the Panama foundling, it would have been laid upon some European doorstep. It appears that Admiral Evans was ordered several weeks ago to Honolulu with the Asiatic squadron, because "the Administration feared that some European Power might try to interfere in Isthmian affairs." The dear, delightful old story! It was about due. That wicked foreign nation is always lurking about, intent on doing illegal things if we do not anticipate it by doing them ourselves. This ancient herring is, in fact, forever drawn across the trail. When Senator Hoar told Mr. McKinley that he did not like the Hawaiian annexation scheme, that good President said plaintively, "I don't know what I am going to do. Japan has her eye on the Islands, and, of course——!" To all which then, and to the revival of similar nonsense about Panama now, the proper answer is "Fudge!" Interference of the kind was utterly improbable. We are certain that no power on earth could induce the Administration to name the meddling European country. It is always "some European nation." The appearance of that frayed bogey in the Panama affair is simply a signal of distress.

It is reported from Washington that District Judge Ray has refused to admit appeals of Chinamen detained under the Chinese Exclusion act, and has ruled that in all such cases the decisions of the immigration officials are final. The finding is commended in some quarters as depriving the wily immigrant of the delays and advantages of habeas-corpus proceedings. In most cases such actions are brought by Chinamen who claim American birth and citizenship. The decision may or may not be good law—it certainly is detestable morals. Chinese silks, teas, and pottery entering our ports have the right of appeal from the lower customs officials to the Treasury Department. Chinamen, on the contrary, though alleging American citizenship, must accept the judgment of the immigration commission as final. There is a certain absurdity in a law which gives merchandise greater judicial privileges than its producers enjoy. As to the matter of law, an act of May 5, 1892 (section 5), denies the right of bail to Chinese immigrants bringing habeas-corpus proceedings, and it is difficult to see how so clear an implication of the right of appeal can be lawfully overridden. To be sure, section 4 of the same act declares that all Chinese "shall be adjudged to be unlawfully within the United States unless [they] shall establish . . . . [their] lawful right to remain in the United States." But this clause is also repugnant to the common law, and the attempt to enforce it against a Chinaman actually a citizen of the United States and bent on maintaining his rights, would raise very interesting problems in Constitutional law. We trust that the alleged denial of the right of appeal to Chinese immigrants may be only a vagary of Judge Ray's, and will be overruled. Difficulties there are in enforcing the Chinese Exclusion act, because it is complicated in its machinery and fundamentally iniquitous in its intentions. To make its enforcement easier by a denial of fundamental human rights would be a perilous convenience for a republic.

It is easy to say, "We want no An-

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archists in this country," but the real question is whether by employing arbitrary methods to keep out one from abroad we do not breed a hundred at home. Repression of free speech, unequal laws, tremendous and vague powers lodged in the hands of the authorities have been the recognized means of producing Anarchists in foreign countries, and undoubtedly will be here, if adopted. The great trouble with the law under which it has been attempted to exclude the Englishman Turner is that it does not precisely define his offence. Criminal laws can strike only at acts. A "disbelief" is something impalpable. How are you going to handcuff a mental state? How can Secretary Cortelyou prevent a thought from crossing the Atlantic? The moment we permit magistrates or commissioners to begin reading crimes in what a man thinks, as distinct from what he says or does, that moment we imperil a government of ordered liberty. Let the authorities be as severe as possible with every crime, or incitement thereto; but let them beware of taking their own guesses at "belief" as proof of crime. No man is safe if the police may arrest for secret thoughts.

The Cuba Quarry Company, according to a statement by Cyrus Field Judson in Thursday's morning papers, received no aid from General Wood, and was a losing venture. It is notorious that soon after General Wood left the island the company went into bankruptcy. The significant matter, however, was that, when General Wood became Governor of Cuba, two of his relatives went down there and began doing business with his Government. J. Condit Smith, a brother of Mrs. Wood, and Cyrus Field Judson, who married her sister, organized the Cuba Quarry Company, and Mr. Smith became president and Mr. Johnson treasurer. The report of W. N. McDonald, superintendent of the Department of Streets (Civil Report of Brig.-Gen. Leonard Wood, Vol. V., Part I., page 69), shows that after the company opened the Campo Florida quarry in the autumn of 1901, the Department "purchased the output" "at $3.63 per cubic metre." Mr. McDonald goes on to tell of the discovery of a new quarry nearer Havana and he explains:

> "Authority was also requested for permission to erect at this point the stone-crushing plant now in storage and formerly used at Vento, as it was believed that the city could furnish its own stone at a saving of more than $1 per cubic metre over contract stone of the same quality. This authority was not granted, however, and the purchase of stone from the Cuba Quarry Company continued up to May 19th."

On the next day, May 20, General Wood ceased to be Governor. In short, Gov. Wood apparently refused to save Havana $1 a cubic metre on its stone purchases by setting up a crusher that would interfere with the enterprise of his brothers-in-law. They were selling stone to the city at the highest price that was paid, for crushed stone brought from $1.25 a cubic metre, according to quality, and the average price was $2.

Gen. Wood may not have deliberately favored his relatives, but he was guilty of impropriety in letting them dabble with his contracts. It was for such misconduct that several employees of the Post-Office Department have recently been dismissed. Their sons, nephews, or other kin were in enterprises that trafficked with the Department. In some cases the connection led to actual dishonesty; but even when there was no crime, President Roosevelt was summary in his treatment of officials who had tolerated such looseness. None perceived more clearly than he that it was a ground for scandal and a grave menace to honest administration. The President would cut off his right hand before he would allow any member of the Roosevelt family, near or remote, to embark in Government contracting under his Administration. It is not asking too much that he demand from his subordinates the same scrupulous adherence to a sound principle.

The South should stop long enough in its rejoicing over the greatly increased wealth which the boom in cotton is bringing it to reflect that he laughs best who laughs last. The present profits are not all clear gain, for something must be deducted for the loss which has already been caused Southern cotton manufacturers by the high price of their raw material. But the most serious feature of the situation for the South is the enormous stimulus which the present movement imparts to the search for new fields for cotton culture. Consumers cannot afford to pay the present prices for cotton for any length of time; these figures mean almost, if not quite, prohibitive quotations on the finished product. Manufacturers will soon begin to find that they must go out of business if they cannot get their material at very much lower prices than the present. When the *St. James's Gazette* said, on Friday, "Does not this state of the cotton market prove that the heaviest sacrifices are worth making to encourage as quickly as possible the growth of the plant within our own Empire?" it simply voiced the sentiment of every rational mind. Experiments in cotton-growing have in the last two or three years been under way in Africa and Asia, and attention is also being turned to the West Indies. In assuming that cotton of an acceptable grade cannot be grown in quantities in any other locality, the South is more than likely hugging a delusion. At any rate, if there are no more good cotton lands, the present quotations on the staple will soon bring that fact to light. This whole business bears the stamp of a penny-wise, pound-foolish policy. Not an exceptional demand at abnormal prices, but a steady demand at moderate quotations, is what the best interests of the South call for.

The admirable resolutions passed by the trustees of Trinity College in sustaining Professor Bassett confirm our view that they mark one of the most important events in the collegiate history of the South. The trustees recognized the great opportunity before them and rose to it. Their declaration that they are unwilling to lend themselves to any tendency to destroy or limit academic liberty, that they scout the notion that professors have not equal liberty of thought and speech with all other Americans, and their readiness that "Trinity should suffer rather than that it should enter upon a policy of coercion and intolerance," will make their utterance a veritable Magna Charta in the eyes of college teachers in the South. The trustees need have no fear that the college will suffer more than temporarily, if at all. Thousands know of it to-day who never heard of it before, more thousands are going to hear of it, and the thanks of teachers all over the United States will be given to its plucky trustees. Not the least gratifying is the support given to the trustees by faculty and students. Thanks to this incident, the latter will carry away with them on graduation clear ideas of freedom of speech and thought which should prevent them from ever becoming parties to any suppression of free discussion of the South's problems in the communities in which they may reside. They will not forget that any failure to uphold Professor Bassett would have meant, as the Trinity trustees well say, the misrepresentation of the State and the placing of the Southern people in a false light before the world.

The conviction of Parks's lieutenant, McCarthy; the resolve of the new Citizens' Industrial Association to prevent the use of the union label on objects made by its members; the finding of a verdict against a Chicago union for disobeying a court injunction, are so many signs that the rash and careless days of labor organization are drawing to a close. In every instance, it should be noted, the remedy for certain distinct evils in unionism has lain in the ordinary processes of the law. McCarthy is condemned under the regular laws forbidding extortion; the manufacturers of the Citizens' Industrial Association are merely asserting their right to label their products as they will; Franklin Union, No. 4, of Press-feeders, is fined for disobeying an injunction forbidding inter-

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ference with the business of their employers. The cases are typical. Unionism, attempting to be a law to itself, needs no other restraint than the firm application of the equal laws of the land. The case of the Press-feeders' Union, held responsible for illegal picketing and fined as a corporation, is of peculiar interest, because it applies in America the principle of the famous Taff-Vale decision, and because it suggests that the anti-boycott suits now pending at Danbury, Conn., may have a similar outcome.

John Alexander Dowie appears to have come to the end of his rope as a prophet; and, like all prophets who can no longer distribute loaves and fishes, he is pretty sure to find his followers turning their backs on him. For it now appears that for bread his deluded saints have been getting a stone, and for fish a serpent. They have flocked into his two-year-old city to the extent of ten thousand. It is said the place represents an expenditure of $20,000,000; but if the lace and candy industries are a fair criterion of the manner in which this fund has been employed, there is likely to be considerable wailing and gnashing of teeth. The prophet could not fail to remember that godliness is profitable for this life, as well as that which is to come; the leasehold tenures of Zion show that. All property there is held on leases for 1,100 years each, but the lessees were no better than tenants at will. Meanwhile they have deposited their surplus cash in Zion Bank, and apparently put themselves completely in Dowie's power. Though he has succeeded in extricating himself from a receivership, further trouble can hardly fail to be in store for his one-man-power scheme.

There are some disadvantages in being a resident of Washington. For instance, if one wishes to buy the shares of the United States Realty Company of that city he must pay $110 a share, whereas a Philadelphian can have them for $100. Why this invidious distinction? Thereby hangs a tale. The United States Realty Company has recently been taking the people of Philadelphia into its confidence, and has outlined a scheme whereby one out of every 1,400 of them can make a thousand per cent. profit. The company "owns 5,000,000 feet of ground, largely on Pennsylvania Avenue," and it hastens to tell investors how they can "bring closer partnership between themselves and the United States Government." The partnership is to be of the usual kind—the Government is to put up the cash, and the investor is to take the profit. The investor is to come in on the basis of 10 cents a square foot for the land, the value of which the Government "will enhance by millions of dollars to be expended in public work at Washington." Is it necessary to say more to show why residents of Washington "need not apply"? But the company leaves no one to his imagination on this point. It tells the people of "the States" that it wants them to invest in its stock in preference to residents of the District, because the former have Congressmen to help them get improvements for the land, while the latter have not. And to make this clear, it prints a picture in the Philadelphia *Bulletin* of a Congressman flatly refusing a request of a citizen of the District of Columbia, while another Congressman is rushing pell-mell to fulfil a mission for a voter. Payment for the stock is on the instalment plan, and a sort of life-insurance benefit is thrown in, to say nothing of a free trip to Washington. The project suggests one or two serious matters. We have here another instance of the use of respectable names in hoodwinking the public. The secretary and treasurer of this precious scheme is William D. Hoover, a vice-president of the National Safe Deposit Company of Washington, an institution with $1,000,000 capital and nearly $5,000,000 of deposits. And among the directors is W. V. Cox, president of the Second National Bank of the same city, whose deposits amount to $1,250,000. But the striking feature of this latest land deal is the frank recognition by its promoters of the real function of Congress.

Mr. Chamberlain's decision to suspend his personal campaign for protection may be simply dictated by need of rest, or it may express the confidence that the stars in their courses are fighting for him. In any case, the imminence of an armed truce is a favorable opportunity for retrospect, and it must be admitted that Mr. Chamberlain's audacity has succeeded beyond all expectations. The attitude of the working class is still in doubt. Bye-elections and the condemnatory resolutions of various labor congresses have, on the whole, shown that Mr. Chamberlain's popularity by no means carries with it confidence in his programme. On the other hand, Mr. Chamberlain's appeal to the manufacturers has met with considerable success. It found them ready for any experiment. The idea of a virtual subsidy brightens as it is considered. Unquestionably a protective act would find just such a manufacturing lobby at Westminster as invades Washington when tariff changes are in the air. Again, Mr. Balfour's success in rendering the Free Food League innocuous, and in virtually silencing such formidable critics within the party as Lord Goschen and Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, has restored the "big brute majority" that Lord Salisbury bequeathed to his gifted nephew. Thus it is possible that the present Ministry may live out its natural term if it is willing to continue in the discredited position it has for two years occupied.

Striking features in the Emperor's speech at the opening of the Reichstag are the absence of a plea for army increase, and the recommendation that the most-favored-nation treatment be continued with England. Even more significant was the appearance of the Socialist members as a compact body, nominating a first vice-president and other officers. This marks definitely the conversion of the Social-Democrats from barren agitation to political opportunism. The change has been wrought with surprising ease and swiftness. Only the other day at Dresden the unyielding Bebel seemed to have carried the day for complete abstention from the routine of the Reichstag. But it is now apparent that the rank and file of the Socialists applauded Bebel's eloquence and sincerity, not his programme. For the creation of parliamentary socialism in Germany credit is due largely to such leaders as Singer and Bernstein—men who have pinned their faith rather to evolution than to revolution. From this time on, the Reichstag will afford an interesting parallel to the Parliaments at Paris and Rome, where strong Socialist groups hold almost a balance of power. Under such circumstances the most radical party will hardly decline, on doctrinaire grounds, to avail itself of the parliamentary advantages which lie so temptingly to hand.

Internationally, the Kaiser's desire to keep the industrial peace with England is of great importance, for it utterly annihilates Chamberlain's pet scare-crow, and leaves Mr. Balfour's retaliatory "pistol" without its most shining mark. It is the complete refutation of the charge that Germany would hold England responsible for the tariff war with Canada. But, with a noteworthy prevision, Mr. Chamberlain's friends had already supplied a new issue. Major Patrick Craigie—a stalwart fiscal reformer—has written to the *Telegraph* asking "Do we eat too much?" In the silly season the purport of such a question would be obvious. In the midst of a heated political campaign, the insinuation is, plainly, that the burden of food taxes may be greatly diminished by diminishing the consumption of food. All this is delicately left to inference, but the working classes are adequately warned of the dangers of surfeit, gout, dyspepsia, and similar gastric ills. An easy extension of the principle is that a happy and genuinely eupeptic race will prefer the dear loaf to the cheap, as less conducive to overloading the stomach. But we note that the implication is received in England with a hilarity recalling the famous hard-times counsel of that American magnate who recommended that the American poor should escape poverty at a bound by simply adopting the wholesome Chinese regimen of rice.

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THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

Mr. Roosevelt's third annual message is, in some respects, an improvement upon the other two. It is shorter. It has nothing to say about "iron in the blood" of a "masterful race." It vaunteth not itself about law-made prosperity. On the contrary, it forecasts a Treasury deficit, and speaks of the need of economy. True, the President proceeds to recommend measures certain to lead to extravagance. His programme of navy enlargement has in it the promise of endless deficits. He is for economy in the abstract, but is also for every concrete expenditure. Lord Nelson said that the word "frigate" would be found written on his heart. On the President's is inscribed "fighting unit."

One part of his message seems to us ominous and discreditable. It is that relating to ship subsidies. He urges a commission to report to Congress upon this subject, on the ground that "differences of opinion" have hitherto prevented agreement on a bill. But, in fact, there are just two opinions—that of those who want the Treasury to come to the aid of the Shipping Trust, and that of those who do not. The President ought to be able to say which he favors. Apparently, however, he has found that inconvenient on the eve of election, the people having their prejudices. On the other hand, Senator Hanna has been insistent in demanding a word of encouragement for the subsidy-seekers; and so, we infer, the shift of a commission has been resorted to as a basis for campaign contributions from the parties in interest. It is a distinct subterfuge, unworthy of Mr. Roosevelt. A blunt and forthright man like him should have come out squarely for subsidies, or against. It is certain that, if the scheme goes through, the President will talk about economy and against corruption in vain. If he does not recall the scandals attending the Pacific Mail subsidy, the *Tribune* would doubtless place its files at his disposal.

In the forefront of his message, the President puts one more defence and explanation of his plan to regulate Trusts by means of the Bureau of Corporations. That therein he has a serviceable instrument may be admitted. As yet, however, he has no results to adduce, and can only make further promises. He declares that the "purpose" of the anti-Trust legislation "will undoubtedly be fulfilled," but for that the country must wait. Meanwhile, the President renews his futile attempt to discriminate, as a lawmaker, between "good" and "bad" Trusts. "We draw the line at conduct," he repeats; but presently betrays his confusion of thought by saying that it is a question of "conduct in accordance with the law of the land." In other words, it is a matter of law, not of morals.

All that the President says about the equal enforcement of the law is excellent. Similarly, there can be only praise for his attitude towards a bettered civil-service. His achievements in beating off attacks on this reform, since he became President, and in strengthening it at one point after another, are to his lasting credit. He has repaired a great deal of the insidious undermining of the civil-service law permitted by President McKinley. That Mr. Roosevelt is appalled by the amount of corruption disclosed in the public service is evident from his strong words on that subject. What he has done in the postal frauds is only an earnest, we believe, of what he stands ready to do with corruption in any Government department where it may be uncovered. Congress should not lose a day in seconding the Executive in the work of running official thieves to earth. National well-being, to say nothing of national honor, is more dependent upon clean administration than upon navies or canals.

What the President has to say about his Panama policy will, we should say, disappoint his supporters. This part of the message is long, labored, and inconclusive. To devote so much space to the Panama coup without having a single new fact or document to present, is a mistake in tactics. It looks like admitting that there is serious opposition, and that a defence is necessary. The more skilful strategy would have been to go on treating objectors with "disdain," and calling their arguments "contemptible," and quietly to inform Congress that the fruition of a proud and happy nation's hopes was at hand in the Isthmian Canal treaty. All this long argumentation and restatement looks like a case of *Qui s'excuse*.

Behind the President's cloud of words the essential facts remain visible as before. The wise precedents of international law have been violated; the prudent attitude and written commitments of former Presidents and Secretaries have been abandoned in a night; this country has been put in the humiliating position of doing to a weak nation what it would never think of attempting in the case of a Power strong enough to resent insulting aggression—and of doing it for selfish advantage. There are questions of right and wrong here which Congress will have gravely to consider, and the country to debate. Already it is evident that the President is not to have his way unchallenged. To say nothing now of any moral fault of his in this whole matter, he has made the old blunder of applying what has been called the "military mind" to a delicate question of diplomacy. That will never do, as Disraeli pointed out with incomparable force and authority. The rapid combinations, the velocity of decision which befit the battlefield are wholly out of place where the vast and slowly evolved interests of a democracy are concerned. Americans cannot be governed by sword and spur, as Napoleon said he governed France. To make fitful and precipitate action the rule of statecraft is to invite, as Disraeli maintained, not only condemnation, but "terrible discomfiture."

"CELERITY."

Apparently, President Roosevelt and Secretary Hay have been reading 'The Art of Political Lying.' One of its maxims is that public men are under no necessity of even appearing to believe in their own fictions. At any rate, the Administration seems to take a cynical delight in making its choice invention, "a republican form of government" in Panama, appear more hollow and ridiculous every day. The solemn signing of a treaty on Wednesday week by the three-man-power republic—a treaty drawn by a Frenchman and an American, in which Panama had absolutely no voice, and which was written solely in a foreign language understood with difficulty by at least some of the signers—puts the finishing touch of absurdity upon a business which has been, throughout, conducted with an unexampled disregard of the proprieties and decencies.

But we must thank the solemn Junta for one word. "Celerity is indispensable," they gravely resolved, as they signed the treaty without reading it. It is true. Jobs like that must be done quickly if at all. They cannot stand deliberation or discussion. Hence the orders issued from Washington to have the whole thing over with. No time was allowed for even a translation of the treaty into the language of the ratifying country. "There was only one copy, in the English language," says the official account. This might look like cruelty to the natives, but Secretary Hay knew what was good for them. They were simply required to "walk Spanish," not talk it. To have used their own language would, as the old English lady explained when refusing to speak French in Paris, "only have encouraged them." Besides, if the Junta had been permitted time to reflect, or to think that Spanish had anything to do with giving their country away, they could not have risen to their great dictum about "celerity." They would have recalled their own proverb, *El que va plano va lontano*, and that would have spoiled all. We presume they had received marked copies of the *Outlook*, elucidating its doctrine of the more haste the more states created and annexed. It is a pity, however, that some one had not sent them a copy of Secretary Hay's apothegm, written when he was still able to see the comic aspect of diplomacy:

> "There are three species of creatures who when they seem coming are going,
> When they seem going they come: Diplomats, women, and crabs."

The question is often put to us, "Well, what would you have done yourself?"

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This implies, of course, that somehow or other the canal had to be got, the only doubt being by what particular piece of sharp practice. To observe good faith; to be dignified and conservative; to follow precedents; to respect the rights of the weak—there is no difficulty about that. But how, we are asked, could the other thing have been more happily done than by President Roosevelt's method? We reply, the same result could have been reached with some regard for appearances. The booty could have been bagged just the same, yet the burglar could have looked, to the casual eye, more like a church member. The Administration might have waited a decent interval. It need not have rushed into recognition of Panama, with so obvious a fear lest there would be nothing to recognize a day later. Doubtless the "republic" could have been propped up and kept going a few weeks. We could have loaned it Gen. Miles to strike terror to the hearts of its enemies. Then, after a month or so, recognition could have followed without such a violent suspicion of conspiracy attaching to the whole affair. Ratification of the treaty by Panama could also have been arranged without such a contempt of all regularity. There might have been at least a sham convention, a bogus Congress, a pretended President, and then it would have been possible to go through the farce with a graver face, and make it seem a real transaction between States instead of a wildly improbable "turn" on the vaudeville stage. In short, we can think of many precautions which it would have been easy for the Administration to observe, and which would not have interfered with its getting the plunder in the end, at the same time that they made its action more fair-seeming.

Indeed, "celerity" implies many dangers. One is, that statesmen in a hurry may forget their own record. As we have shown, President Roosevelt intervened last year to help Colombia restore order on the Isthmus. Too much celerity in doing the opposite thing does not look well. When such swift work is undertaken, statesmen may also ignore their country's history. Charles Francis Adams protested in 1861 against even the English concession of belligerent rights to the South—far from a recognition of nationality—on the ground that it had been "rapid." What would he have said of the overnight recognition of Panama as a full-fledged republic? Seward also had an obsolete notion of "celerity." In the circular letter to our Ministers in Europe, which he sent in April, 1861, he said that "to recognize the independence of a new State" was an act requiring the greatest deliberation. Especial "prudence," he argued, was necessary in regard to American States; and he added, in words that are the sufficient rebuke of the mad haste and unconcealed selfishness displayed in the Panama imbroglio: "When one nation casts its suffrages for the admission of a new member, . . . it ought to act under a profound sense of moral obligation, and be governed by considerations as pure, disinterested, and elevated as the general interest of society or the advancement of human nature."

THE COST OF FOOD.

The November issue of the *Bulletin* of the National Bureau of Labor gives a brief summary of an investigation into the cost of living of 2,567 workingmen's families. It covered the retail prices of the principal staple articles of food. The families lived in thirty-three States, embraced in five groups; 1,415 being in the North Atlantic group, 721 in the North Central, 219 in the South Atlantic, 122 in the South Central, and 90 in the Western. Thirty articles of food were tested according to the average consumption in families whose income is not more than $1,200 per year. The average income of the families in question was $827.19. Their average annual expenditure for all purposes was $768.54, of which $326.90 was for food. The average number of persons in each family was 5.31, and the average cost of food was $61.70 per capita, or about 17 cents per day for all ages.

Prices of separate articles of food are not given, but the relative retail price is furnished. Thus, if the average food cost for the thirteen years is represented by the number 100, that of the year 1890 would be 102.4, that of 1896 would be 95.5, and that of 1902 110.9. It appears that the price of food has followed an undulatory movement during the period under consideration, the two highest points having been 1893 and 1902, and the lowest 1896. This corresponds with the ups and downs of trade during the same period. The price of food, according to the statistics presented in the *Bulletin*, has varied with the wave line of prosperity. That wave line itself has been caused by the law of supply and demand.

There are variations in the amount of cereals produced in different years, but, in the conditions now prevailing in Europe and America, such variations do not greatly affect the retail markets. More serious effects are produced by variations of demand, for although the number of mouths to be filled does not diminish, the purchasing power of mankind varies greatly. While very few persons in civilized countries actually starve, many have less food than they need, and multitudes have less than they would buy if they could. There is little room for doubt that the relatively low prices of food prevailing in the six years 1894-1899, were due to the lessened demand consequent upon the trade depression of that period, and that the higher prices prevailing before and since were due to the contrary conditions. The retail prices of food have risen 16 per cent, since the low level of 1896, and are nearly 11 per cent. above the average of the thirteen years under investigation. The rise has been rapid in recent years, the cost in 1902 having been 5.4 per cent. above that of 1901 and 9.7 per cent. above that of 1900.

In the political campaign of 1896 there was a great outcry in the West and South against falling prices of agricultural products, and the downward movement was attributed by the Bryan party to a shortage of money. This it was proposed to cure by the free coinage of silver. The opponents of this policy affirmed that the decline of prices was due to other causes, and especially to improved processes of production and transportation. They contended also that falling prices were advantageous rather than hurtful to society, since they enabled the masses of mankind to supply their wants with less labor. The latter contention was indisputable, provided wages remained the same and the conditions of employment were unchanged. But if these conditions had remained unchanged, the prices of agricultural products would probably not have fallen, since the wage-earning classes would have been able to buy as freely as in the years preceding the panic.

How severely wage-earners are pinched by loss of employment or by a rise in the cost of living is seen in the fact that the smaller the income the larger is the proportion of it required to pay for food. In the cases cited, the expenditure for food was 42.54 per cent. of the total, but this was for families whose average income was above $800 per year. It has been shown by previous investigations of the Labor Bureau that where the income is $200, or less, the cost of food is 50 per cent., and that this percentage falls as the income rises. When the latter reaches $1,200, the percentage spent for food is less than 29. In Great Britain and Germany the percentage of food cost to total cost among the laboring classes is somewhat higher than in the United States, but for clothing, rent, and fuel it is lower.

One conclusion reached by the Labor Bureau seems to be inconsistent with the others. The price of food in the Western group of States in 1902 was lower by 7 per cent. than the average of the five groups, but in 1890, 1891, and 1892 it was about 5 per cent. higher than the average. Not only so, but the price in the Western group was 3 to 4 per cent. higher in the early nineties than it was in 1892. That food prices should be lower in the Western group than in other sections is not surprising, since the bulk of the cereals and meats consumed in the country are produced there; but how are we to account for the discrepancies in the Western group at different times? A fact of considerable

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importance is that the extreme range of wholesale prices of food during the thirteen years has been more than twice as great as that of retail prices, being 37 per cent. in the former and only 16 per cent. in the latter. This indicates that custom has a strong influence in retail trade.

UNIONISM AND GRAND OPERA.

Director Conried's dispute with the orchestra of the Metropolitan Opera House displays one of those amusing cases in which unionism gravely occupies itself with the fine arts. The grievance of the orchestra was the employment of two women harpists, neither of whom possessed the card of the Musical Protective Association, and one of whom had not been in the country the six months required for union membership. The controversy, then, was that of the open shop transferred to the orchestra. Mr. Conried asserts the right to employ any musician he chooses, irrespective of society affiliations; the players of his orchestra, on the contrary, refused to play with any musician not a member of their union. The two harpists have consented to join the union for the sake of peace—

"Such sweet compulsion doth in music lie"—

and for the moment the incident is closed.

The affair presents some curious features. The players of the Metropolitan orchestra are somewhat above those who make up the rank and file of the Protective Association. Some of them would have certain pretensions to be regarded as artists, are occasionally soloists, teachers, etc. In any case, they belong or should belong to the wider fraternity of musicians. All the stranger that they are so willing to cast off this honorable bond and accept that of the manual trades. By a subterfuge—the requirement of six months' residence before membership—they seek to prevent the addition of foreign players to their number. In general, they seem to endeavor to shut themselves out from the musical world and to reduce orchestral playing in America to a limited handicraft.

Of course, the trouble is that these musicians have many of them been promoted from the journeyman position, and have not been able to realize their new dignity and independence. As purveyors of dance music and beguilers of the *entr'actes* of our theatres, they found their union of service, and now they continue to obey it against all common sense. For it is evident that the unionist principle of "ca' canny" would play havoc with the promotion they have so honorably won. Imagine that principle applied to the routine of an orchestra. First, it hinders its improvement by the injection of new blood. Not long ago the union attempted to have Eduard Strauss's orchestra excluded as "contract labor"—an instructive instance of the willingness of these unionized artists to belittle their own profession. The Treasury Department took the more generous view that these musicians were artists. Last winter an exciting foretaste of the possibilities of discontented unionism was afforded in the rumor that certain aggrieved tuba players would take their vengeance into their own hands. The prospects for our orchestras, if they are to be exposed to cacophonous strikes, are not inviting. Furthermore, a cardinal contention of unionism is that members must not be "rushed." Whether a strict application of this doctrine would not abolish the *presto*, we leave conductors and the unions to determine.

Evidently, logical unionism should not stop at the orchestra. Why should not singers, too, be the subject of strike, boycott, and blacklist? Consistency also would require that all the composers should join the Protective Association under penalty of having their works misplayed, and would dictate a refusal to play from scores not printed or engraved by the typographical union. Would convinced unionist violinists, again, consent to sit in chairs or use music-stands not stamped with the union label; or to "rosin-up" with gum drawn from syndicated evergreen forests? Who guarantees that horsehair and catgut have had purification under unionist rites? The very wood of the manly bassoon and brass of the inspiriting tuba are the result of subtle chemical unions unsanctioned by the American Federation of Labor. In short, the musician who desired to live by the complete unionist code could do little but whistle to himself in a vacuum.

Such delightful absurdities we condone when they are perpetrated by horny-handed labor, uninstructed and desperately solicitous of its imagined profit; but when men of the artist class make a deliberate policy of such antics, the occasion calls only for ridicule. A very effective comment on the boycott of Mr. Conried's two talented harpists would be that of an International Preachers' Union or a Protective Association of College Presidents. Pending the formation of these much-needed bodies, we can only hope that the Metropolitan orchestra will take counsel of good humor, good sense, and the honor that binds every artist to the furtherance of his chosen art. Director Conried has suggested that in case of a boycott he might present grand opera to a tolerant public with a piano accompaniment, that individualistic instrument having apparently evaded the clutch of advancing unionism. We believe the emergency was worthy of a higher flight. Mme. de Staël and her lover, August Schlegel, by a comprehensible coincidence, simultaneously declared architecture to be "frozen music." Had Mr. Conried in his extremity pointed to the rebuilt stage and auditorium which he has provided, and explained that these were the only music that unionism permitted him to offer, the announcement would have been greeted with greater applause than could ever attend the performance of a thoroughly unionized orchestra.

HERBERT SPENCER.

In the death of Mr. Herbert Spencer, England has to deplore the loss of one of the two or three most influential thinkers whom she has given to our generation. In awarding "points" to the various candidates for immortality in the "Pantheon of Philosophy," few are entitled to a higher mark than Mr. Spencer on the score of positive and systematic form. Whatever greatness this quality imports—and surely it is as rare and great as any—belong to Mr. Spencer in the fullest measure. Who, since he wrote, is not vividly able to conceive of the world as a thing evolved from a primitive fire mist, by progressive integrations and differentiations, and increases in heterogeneity and coherence of texture and organization? Who can fail to think of life, both bodily and mental, as a set of ever-changing ways of meeting the "environment"? Who has not suddenly at some time grown grave at the thought that the parents' sinful or virtuous habits are inherited by the children, and destined to accumulate from generation to generation while the race endures?

When one tries, however, to give a nearer account of Herbert Spencer's genius, and a more exact appraisal of his importance in the history of thought, one finds the task a hard one, so unique and idiosyncratic was the temperament of the man; and, with all the breadth of ground which his work covered, so narrow and angular was the outline which he personally showed. A pen like Carlyle's might convey a living impression of all the pluses and minuses which Mr. Spencer's character embodied, but a writer like the present critic must surely fail. Carlyle, himself, indeed, had he ever tried the task, would have failed. With his so different temperament, the littlenesses of the personage would have tempted his descriptive powers exclusively, and the elements of greatness would have got scant justice from his pen. As a rule, all people in whom a genius like Carlyle's raises a responsive thrill, find something strangely exasperating in the atmosphere of Spencer's mind: it seems to them so fatally lacking in geniality, humor, picturesqueness, and poetry, and so explicit, so mechanical, so flat in the panorama which it gives of life. Nevertheless, the fact remains that long before any of his contemporaries had seized its universal import, he grasped a great, light-giving truth—the truth of evolution; grasped it so that it became bone of his bone and flesh of his flesh, and, with a pertinacity of which the history of successful thought gives few examples, applied it to the whole of life, down to the minutest details of the most various sciences. And how, one may well ask, is profundity and the genuine "spirit of prophecy" ever to be shown in a man, if not by fruits like these?

Moreover, although Spencer's intellect is essentially of the deductive and à priori order, starting from universal abstract principles and thence proceeding down to facts,

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what strikes one more than anything else in his writings is the enormous number of facts from every conceivable quarter which he brings to his support, and the unceasing study of minutest particulars which he is able to keep up. No "Baconian" philosopher, denying himself the use of à priori principles, has ever filled his pages with half as many facts as this strange species of apriorist can show. This unflagging and profuse command of facts is what gives such peculiar weightiness to Mr. Spencer's manner of presenting even the smallest topics. Some of his "Essays" have a really monumental character from this cause. "Manners and Fashion," "The Origin of Laughter," "Illogical Geology," and the reviews of Bain's 'Emotions and Will' and Owen's 'Archetype of the Vertebrate Skeleton,' immediately occur to the mind as examples. In all his writings on social morals, from 'Social Statics' to 'The Man versus the State,' the same quality is most impressively shown. Yet, with this matchless knowledge of certain sets of facts, one may hear it plausibly argued that Spencer is not a "widely informed" man in the vulgar acceptation of the term. He shows, that is, small signs of *desultory* curiosity. His command, *e. g.*, of foreign languages is small, and in the history of philosophy he is obviously unversed. His facts, in short, seem all collected for a purpose; those which help the purpose are never forgotten, those which are alien to it have never caught his eye.

Mr. Spencer's attitude towards religion, again, is slightly paradoxical. Few men have paid it more sincere explicit respect; and the part called "The Unknowable" of his 'First Principles' celebrates the ultimate mysteriousness of things, and the existence of a Supreme Reality behind the veil, in terms whose emphatic character it is hard elsewhere to match. Yet on the whole he passes, and we imagine passes rightly, for an irreligious philosopher. His metaphysical "Absolute" is too ineffable to become active in the system, and an absolute Physics forthwith takes its place. The mystery of things, instead of being "omnipresent," is all neatly swept together into this one chapter, and then dismissed with an affectionate good-by, while all the particular mysteries which later present themselves are quickly explained away; Life being but complicated mechanism, and Consciousness only physical force "transformed," etc., etc. In Mr. Spencer's heroic defence of individualism against socialism and the general encroachment of the State there is a similar seeming incoherence, so marked that one cannot help suspecting his thought to have started from two independent facts, and to be faithful to two ideals.

The first one was the old English ideal of individual liberty, culminating in the doctrine of *laissez faire*, for which the book 'Social Statics,' published in 1851, was so striking a plea. The second was the theory of universal evolution, which seems to have taken possession of Mr. Spencer in the decade which ensued. The Spencerian law of evolution is essentially statistical. Its "integrations," "differentiations," etc., are names for describing results manifested in collections of units, and the laws of the latter's individual action are, in the main and speaking broadly, hardly considered at all. The fate of the individual fact is swallowed up in that of the aggregate total. And this is the impression (unless our memory betrays us) which Mr. Spencer's dealings with the individual man in society always gives us, so long as the general description of the process of evolution is what he has in hand. He denies free will, as a matter of course; he despises hero-worship and the tendency to ascribe social changes to individual initiative rather than to "general conditions," and in every way tends to minimize the particular concrete man. Society drags the unit along in its fatal tow. Yet in the political writings of Mr. Spencer, with their intense and absolute reliance on individuals, we find the very opposite of this. Deeper students than we are may see the point in his system where these two streams of tendency unite. To us they seem, not perhaps incompatible, but at least detached.

To the present critic, the ethical and political part of Mr. Spencer's writings seems the most impressive and likely to endure. The 'Biology,' the 'Psychology,' the 'Sociology,' even were they abler than they are, must soon become obsolete books; but the antique spirit of English individualism is a factor in human life less changeable than the face of the sciences, and such expressions of it as Spencer has given will probably long deserve to be read. The 'Data of Ethics' is unquestionably the most valuable single part of the "Synthetic Philosophy," not for the reason that it makes ethics for the first time "scientific" (although this was probably its chief merit in its author's eyes), but because it gives voice with singular energy to one man's ideals concerning human life. Ideals as manly, as humane, as broadly inclusive, and as forcibly expressed are always a force in the world's destinies. The 'Data of Ethics' will therefore long continue to be read.

The 'Principles of Biology' and of 'Psychology' are already somewhat out of date. Spencer's heroic attempt mechanically to explain the genesis of living forms are altogether too coarsely carried out in the former book; and the problems of reproduction and heredity are complicated today with elements of which he could know nothing when he wrote. Of the 'Psychology,' it may be further said that not much remains that is of value beyond the general conception, supported by many applications, that the mind grew up in relation to its environment, and that the two cannot be studied apart—a conception that sounded decidedly more original in the '50s and '60s than it does now. The 'Sociology' has probably a longer lease of life. It is more recent, and must long be valued as a vast collection of well-arranged anthropological facts. As a chapter in the "System of Philosophy," its value is almost evanescent, for the author's habit of periodically pointing out how well the phenomena illustrate his law of evolution seems quite perfunctory and formal when applied to social facts, so strained and unnatural is it to conceive of these as mechanical changes in which matter is integrated and motion dispersed. It is probable—strange irony of fate!—that the book called 'First Principles,' although from a strict point of view it is far more vulnerable than anything its author ever wrote, is the work by which the "Synthetic Philosophy" will remain best known to the reading world.

This, however, is very likely as it should be. A man like Spencer can afford to be judged, not by his infallibility in details, but by the bravery of his attempt. He sought to see truth as a whole. He brought us back to the old ideal of philosophy, which since Locke's time had well nigh taken flight; the ideal, namely, of a "completely unified knowledge," into which the physical and mental worlds should enter on equal terms. This was the original Greek ideal of philosophy, to which men surely must return. Spencer has been likened to Aristotle. But he presents far more analogies to Descartes, whose mechanical theory of evolution swept over his age as Spencer's sweeps over ours. And although Spencer can show no such triumphs of detail as Descartes's discoveries of analytical geometry, of dioptrics, of reflex action, and of perception by the eye, his moral character inspires an infinitely greater sympathy than that of the earlier philosopher. Descartes's life was absolutely egotistic, and he was basely servile to the powers that be. Mr. Spencer's faculties were all devoted to the service of mankind, and few men can have lived whose personal conduct unremittingly trod so close upon the heels of their ideal.

ANOTHER GLACIAL WONDER.

TUSCUMBIA, Mo., November 28, 1903.

So many remarkable phenomena in the northern part of the United States have been explained by the glacial period that it seemed as if we were nearly at the end of the wonderful story, but at the meeting of the Geological Society of North America in Washington last winter, Professor Buckley of the School of Mines at Rolla, Missouri, and Dr. Ball, who had been conducting the geological survey of Miller County, made an announcement really startling to that portion of the scientific public whose familiarity with the situation enabled them to appreciate its significance. The announcement made was that a number of granitic boulders had been found in the valley of the Osage River near Tuscumbia, 40 miles further south than they had been heretofore noted in that vicinity. The facts seemed of sufficient importance to warrant a journey of 700 miles for their investigation. Investigation has increased rather than diminished the interest attaching to them.

The glacial boundary across Missouri follows very closely the line of the Missouri River, there being no indications of glacial ice actually across the Missouri River, except on the low lands in two or three counties between Jefferson City and Kansas City. North of this line, the country is completely enveloped with glacial deposits, including great numbers of granitic bowlders from the vicinity of Lake Superior and the northern part of Wisconsin and Minnesota. The course of the Missouri River itself is also worthy of attention. At Kansas City this great line of drainage makes a turn at right angles and pursues an easterly course for 300 miles. The obvious cause of this turn is that it meets here the first beginnings of that gentle uplift which is known as the Ozark Mountains. But the word mountains is hardly applicable, since there is merely a swell in the earth's surface attaining an elevation of about 1,500 feet above the sea, or

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1,000 feet above the Missouri River at a point 100 miles south of it. From this watershed the drainage of several large rivers, of which the Osage is the principal, finds its way northward into the Missouri. The Osage River, however, rises two or three hundred miles to the west, far up in Kansas, running for a considerable distance parallel with the Kansas River above Kansas City, and not far from it. Tuscumbia lies in the trough of the Osage, 60 miles above its entrance into the Missouri.

A drive of forty miles across the country from California, about thirty miles west of Jefferson City, to Tuscumbia, shows a complete absence of glacial deposits, and leads over a picturesque country which was once a plain, but is now deeply channelled by numerous streams which have been at work from early geological ages. On approaching within a few miles of Tuscumbia, a scene of real grandeur unfolds itself before one's eyes. The Osage River has cut a central channel in the magnesian limestone about 300 feet below the general level, and in this channel are innumerable side gorges which approach it on both sides at various angles. The other side of the valley, 10 or 15 miles away, has the appearance of a mountain range. On descending into this valley one finds the immediate trough of the Osage at Tuscumbia to be about half a mile wide, with perpendicular limestone bluffs on either side of 100 to 150 feet in height. Between the river and these limestone bluffs there are continuous old flood-plains or terraces, now considerably above high-water mark, furnishing very fertile farm lands. But the river itself is not flowing over a rock bottom. The abutments of the railroad bridge fourteen miles below were sunk forty feet below the bottom of the river before rock was reached. The gradient of the river is only about one foot to the mile—very nearly the same as that of the Missouri. Steamers ascend in high water as far as Osceola, a distance, as the river runs, of 200 miles.

All this shows clearly enough the following vicissitudes in the river's history: During a very long period the drainage of this flank of the Osage uplift has been concentrated along the line of the Osage River, when the general elevation was somewhat greater than now. This period was protracted enough for the river to erode all this long, tortuous, deep gorge, contributing the material to the Missouri, which carried it away to the sea. This process proceeded until the gorge was certainly 40 feet deeper than now. Then a subsidence of the region diminished the gradient of the stream and allowed it to silt up its channel to the present level, whereupon followed the remarkable facts connected with the glacial period of which we are now to speak.

At as many as nine places within a few miles of Tuscumbia, large granitic boulders from the far north have been found along the gravel terraces which line the Osage River. One, which I saw, measures 4x3 feet upon the surface, and extends an indefinite distance into the ground. Another, lying in one of the side gorges half a mile back from the river, would weigh fully half a ton, and was stranded at an elevation of about 75 feet above the river, which would be 150 feet above the Missouri. To account for the existence of these boulders in the gorge of this valley, but one theory is really open: they have been floated 60 miles *up the Osage River* on ice floes which had brought them down from the glacial region farther north.

To produce such a drift up stream, it is necessary to imagine conditions under which the Missouri River would periodically rise nearly 200 feet, while the Osage River had not much increase of its water supply in the principal part of its drainage basin. Such a condition of things has many analogies in a small way. For instance, the Columbia River in Oregon often rises 30 or 40 feet when there is no corresponding rise in the Willamette. At such times the water of the Columbia sends a wave up the Willamette to Portland somewhat as the tide of the ocean goes up into an inlet. I well remember hearing a strange story, when a boy, that the mill-dam of Hubbardton Creek in Vermont had been carried away up stream. The explanation was that the Castleton River, into which the creek ran, suddenly rose while there was no corresponding rise in the creek. The mill-dam, not being protected from pressure below, was consequently easily drifted up stream. Under similar conditions the Missouri River, rising 200 feet, would float masses of ice up the Osage River to a distance of nearly 100 miles.

On turning our minds to the conditions connected with the close of the glacial period, we find that they fit in with these facts as a key fits the lock for which it is made. During the glacial period the drainage of all the region from the Hudson Bay southward was turned over into the valleys of the Mississippi and Missouri. Some 200,000 square miles of the drainage basin then contributing to the Missouri was covered with glacial ice. In the closing stages of the period it is estimated (and with much probability) that the ice was melting off at the rate of from 15 to 20 feet annually, which, in addition to the annual rainfall (probably much increased), would make about ten times the amount of water now carried off by the Missouri River. During this last year the excessive rainfall of a single week through eastern Kansas and southern Iowa produced tremendous floods at Kansas City, raising the water thirty-eight feet. It is easy to suppose that during the summer months in the closing stage of the glacial period there was an annual rise in the river of five times that amount, which would be sufficient to produce the phenomena we are considering at Tuscumbia.

This explanation required for the boulders at Tuscumbia is also of much assistance in our efforts to explain the vast amount of loess which has accumulated in the Missouri valley. The deposits of this very fine loam, like that which covers southern Russia and borders the base of the mountains throughout Central Asia and China, rise in many places to a thickness of 200 feet above the river on either side, thinning out in both directions as one gets away from the stream. A controversy of considerable interest has arisen concerning the origin of this. The difficulty of providing water in sufficient quantities to account for the deposit has given great encouragement to those who would attribute it entirely to wind deposition, so that, notwithstanding the difficulties, many eminent geologists have adopted the wind hypothesis. But in the annual floods of such enormous extent in the Missouri valley, which theoretically would occur during the closing stages of the glacial period, and which are now more definitely indicated by this drifting of large boulders so far up this southern tributary, we have the requisite *vera causa* which has been needed by those advocating the water hypothesis.

Special interest attaches to these phenomena from the supposed connection of the loess with the early history of mankind. The celebrated Lansing skeleton, concerning which so much has been written, is thought by many of the best geologists to have been buried at the base of the bluffs twenty miles above Kansas City before the deposition of the loess, thus connecting it with that stage of the glacial period which produced the enormous floods of which we have been speaking. Without attempting to assign any definite date to this period, it is sufficient to have our attention directed to those significant vicissitudes through which the human race has passed, in both Europe and America, which are connected with the glacial period. Either man is very ancient, or the vicissitudes connected with the glacial period are much more recent than were once supposed. Indeed, so many signs point to their recency that we need not be surprised to find the date of the civilization of Babylonia carried backwards till it meets the period of the prevalence of glacial ice over northern Europe and North America, with its outlying population existing in much the same conditions as those now surrounding the Eskimo in Greenland.

G. Frederick Wright.

PRESIDENT HÉNAULT.

Paris, November 19, 1903.

We can count several judges among our men of letters; the most famous, we may say illustrious, is President Montesquieu, author of the 'Lettres Persanes,' the 'Esprit des Lois,' the 'Considérations sur la Grandeur et la Décadence des Romains.' His place is quite apart. After him I will name President des Brosses, whose 'Journey to Italy' remains among the most amusing and witty books of the eighteenth century. President Hénault was even more famous in his time than President des Brosses. His connection with Madame du Deffand has made his name familiar to all those who take an interest in the society of the eighteenth century; his books, some of which were much read in his time, are now well forgotten, and it was not without some surprise that I found them much eulogized in a very careful and elaborate biography, 'President Hénault—1685-1770: His Life and Works, with inedited documents,' written quite recently by M. Henri Lion, a doctor of letters. Sainte-Beuve had already done something for the memory of President Hénault, in giving him a place in his 'Causeries du Lundi,' which are decidedly the most valuable and comprehensive contribution of our time to the study of French literature. Sainte-Beuve wrote his article after the publication of the memoirs of President Hénault by one of his grand-nephews, Baron de Vigan, as late as 1854.

"President Hénault," says Sainte-Beuve, "was above all a society man. Happy from his youth, having received from Heaven fortune, good looks, the desire to please and the art of enjoying, he early lived in the best society; he breathed, at the end of the

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reign of Louis XIV., the civilized air, the mildest and the most temperate, for which he was made. He continued his career far into the eighteenth century without partaking of its license or its ardor; he was the intimate and familiar friend of all the men in power, the patron or the Amphitryon of men of letters, among whom he took a distinguished rank which all were anxious to give him. He had no other misfortune than to survive himself a little in his last years, and to sink in spirit before being extinguished."

It may almost be said that M. Henri Lion's volume is the development of these lines of Sainte-Beuve's; at any rate, the impression made by the volume is the same as that made by them.

Hénault was born on the 8th of February, 1685. After leaving college, he entered the Seminary of the Oratorians, but he had not the clerical vocation, and left it soon afterwards. He became very early a Councillor and afterwards President of one of the chambers of the Parlement. He led a very gay life, and became one of the intimate friends of Samuel Bernard, the great financier of the time, of the Sullys, the Prince de Léon, Madame de Lambert, the Regent of Orleans, the Abbé de Chaulieu. On the occasion of a *lit de justice* which Louis XV. had to hold on reaching his majority, President Hénault was asked to prepare the speeches to be delivered before the Parlement by the young King, by the Regent, by M. d'Armenonville, the Keeper of the Seals, and by *M. le Premier*, the first President. These four speeches did not give him much trouble. He tells us in his memoirs that the Regent never knew to whom he was under obligations for his speech.

Hénault on this occasion became acquainted with the Cardinal Dubois, with the Duke de Bourbon and his mistress, Madame de Prie. In the midst of the dissolute society in which he was living, he had a serious attachment: he felt for Madame de Castelmoron, wife of the Marquis of this name, a lieutenant-general of the French armies, a strong and lasting friendship. He speaks of her in his memoirs as a person "worthy of the esteem and attachment of all who place any value on virtue," and he says, after her death (1761), that "she had been, for forty years, the principal object of his life." Madame de Castelmoron certainly was his good genius, the person whom he revered, to whom he came for advice in all the circumstances of his life. He describes her as reasonable, full of judgment, of a solid mind, unselfish, without envy, without pretension, living only for others. Judging from his own words and assurances, she was the one woman for whom he really had an affection, consisting half of love, half of friendship, or of a kind for which no suitable word has yet been found.

The relations of President Hénault with the famous Madame du Deffand grew very intimate towards 1730, when she was already thirty-four years old. They lasted for forty years, and became quasi-conjugal. The marchioness was separated from her husband, of whom she said once that he was always "aux petits soins pour déplaire." She had been for a short time the mistress of the Regent, and was a friend of Madame de Prie. When we read her letters (which were published first at Strawberry Hill) we do not wonder that she was a friend of Voltaire and the witty Duchess du Maine. She became a star of the little court which the Duchess kept at Sceaux. Hénault resigned his charge at the Parlement in 1731, and spent a good part of his life at Sceaux, where the marchioness remained for whole months.

In 1744 Hénault published the work which established his reputation, the 'Nouvel Abrégé Chronologique.' Its success was very great, several editions following each other rapidly, and the work had the honor of translations. "Nobody," said the Prince de Beauvau, who succeeded Hénault in the French Academy, "knew better how to separate pedantry from research. He presented to us a picture of our history as he saw it, as a statesman, a jurist, a man of the court, a savant. He painted the different ages of our nation, the characters of our illustrious men, the variations of the Government." Hénault's work on French history is, I am afraid, not as much read nowadays as Bossuet's 'Discours sur l'histoire universelle,' or as the historical works of Voltaire; but even these have now few readers. History transforms itself, like everything else. The famous 'Esprit des Lois' of Montesquieu sleeps on the shelves of many libraries, and few are they who are familiar with this great work. Hénault had the satisfaction of an immediate success. M. Henri Lion takes the trouble to explain that this success was well deserved, and he attributes to Hénault the qualities of the genuine historian. We have a tendency nowadays to believe that the nineteenth century created the true historical method, and are apt to forget that the study of original documents had already become the basis of history in the eighteenth century; we forget the immense work of the Benedictines, their valuable publications of texts, of local and provincial histories, the publications of the Academy of Inscriptions. Hénault was intimately acquainted with the work of Boulainvilliers, of Daniel, of Mézeray, of Vertot, of Calmet, and a number of others. He was not a pedant, but he was really learned; he was very conscientious, as is proved by the changes and additions which he made in the successive editions of his work.

Hénault liked to relieve the seriousness of his work by little anecdotes; and who can blame him for it? On the morning of the battle of the Downs—which was fought by Don Juan of Austria against Turenne, contrary to the advice of the Prince de Condé, who was at the time on the Spanish side—Condé said to the Duke of Gloucester, who was on his side: "Sir, have you ever seen a battle lost? Well, you are going to see one." And, truly enough, Don Juan lost his battle. This anecdote is perfectly authentic, and it has a real historical value, as it shows the acumen of the great Condé, who never lost a battle when he was himself in command. In many of the anecdotes of the 'Abrégé Chronologique' we see the moralist, the philisopher, as well as the historian; and this explains the great success which the work obtained at the time. The portraits are also very striking, though they do not recall the vividness of the portraits of Saint-Simon. Among the best are those of Louis XI., of Mazarin, of the Cardinal de Retz. I find in the last this curious passage: "One has some difficulty in understanding how a man who spent his life in combining, never had any true object. He loved intrigue for its own sake." M. Lion concludes by saying that the 'Abrégé Chronologique' was the best epitome of French history of the eighteenth century; and in the nineteenth he finds nothing to compare with it except Michelet's 'Précis de l'histoire moderne.'

The memoirs of President Hénault appeared, as I have said, not till eighty-eight years after his death, in 1854. As edited by the Baron de Vigan, they constituted a volume of more than four hundred pages. The first part contained the memoirs proper; the second part consisted of various fragments, dispatches, literary essays, etc. As soon as these memoirs appeared, Sainte-Beuve found out that there was another manuscript of them in the possession of M. de Monmerqué; it is now in the library of La Ferté-Macé, to whom it was left by M. de Contades. The memoirs, which were written, Hénault says himself, for the amusement of his old age, are very fragmentary; there is no chronological order in them. The narrative becomes, in consequence, somewhat confused. They can take only a secondary rank among the numerous memoirs of the time; their real interest lies in the portraits drawn here and there of the many men and women with whom Hénault came in contact. These memoirs, however, which Hénault wrote *currente calamo*, without taking much pains, will in future have probably more readers than the 'Abrégé Chronologique,' a work which absorbed him during his whole lifetime.

There is nothing to say about the relations of Hénault and Madame du Deffand that has not been said many times. The story goes that when the President was near his end and had already partly lost his mind, Madame du Deffand, who was in his room with some friends, asked him, in order to take him out of his drowse, if he still remembered Madame de Castelmoron. This name woke him up, and he said that he remembered her very well. She then asked him if he had loved her more than Madame du Deffand. "Quelle différence!" said the dying man—"quelle différence!" There was much eloquence in those last words; the heart was still alive, though the mind was nearly gone.

Correspondence.

A TOPIC FOR TOWN MEETINGS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your comments upon President Roosevelt's aggression upon the rights of Colombia and upon the good name of our own country give me satisfaction, but you should, I think, suggest action that will place the American people right before the world. The President attempts to filch territory and privileges from another nation, and in offensive and autocratic manner he attempts to drive Congress to forestall the will of the people. The patriotic, honest, and sober citizens should in town meetings demand that their Senators and Representatives in Congress, without further delay, vote for a joint resolution of Congress that would, in the most emphatic way, censure President Roosevelt and Secretary Hay for their hasty and improper action. The people must in this way repudiate base actions and declare that the Unit-

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ed States still stands for justice, liberty, and equality of opportunity, if they wish to hold the confidence and respect of the Central and South American countries.

There is no question that all citizens of the United States want an Atlantic-Pacific canal. The majority of these citizens accept the Panama route as the best; but they want it built in a way to respect and conserve the rights of Colombia, want it built so that Central and South American countries need not be driven into political and commercial alliances with Great Britain and Germany, to the great disadvantage of all American nations. The people of the United States want no antagonism between the Americas, north and south, and they want trade relations on natural lines fostered in all possible ways, want free trade among American nations established, and a common tariff against all European and Asiatic nations—of course, with a fair distribution of customs receipts among all countries within the American Commercial Union—within the American Zollverein.

I would have the Atlantic-Pacific Canal forever free to ships sailing under the flags of those nations in the proposed union. I would in this way stimulate American shipping. This economic union would make immediate and permanent trade expansion on natural lines, because countries of different products, of different climate, must exchange natural products or do without them. When the people of the United States appreciate, as soon they must, that the policy of President Roosevelt on the Panama situation means discord, war, and industrial stagnation, not peace and prosperity on the American continent; when they appreciate that establishment of this Roosevelt-Hay policy of aggression upon weak American countries means putting aside the Monroe Doctrine, they will dislodge from power the President and the Congress that would betray them, and put our great and free country forward once more as the protector of American nations against European attack.

Yours very truly, WHARTON BARKER.

PHILADELPHIA, December 4, 1903.

LIKELY TO BE FORGOTTEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will Congress at its present session forget that Treasury episode which caused so much comment last summer and which cries aloud for relief? Probably it will, but the country can hardly have altogether forgotten it so soon. The occasion in mind is that when one of the Assistant Secretaries, having been left in sole charge for several weeks, was compelled to spend his whole time, both in and out of office hours, in writing his name at the bottom of official papers which had been written by subordinates, and which he had not time to read, much less to consider. Who, then, was "running" or administering the Department? Certainly not the man who was putting in fourteen hours a day in writing his signature as fast as a messenger could put the unsigned papers before him and take the signed ones away. Were not the true administrators the authors of the official letters, warrants, and what not that were signed by the Assistant Secretary in such hot haste? And who were these authors? Ostensibly the chiefs of bureaus and divisions whose initials were appended for authentication, but really, in probably a majority of cases, the chief clerks who served under these chiefs. The chief clerk is the real administrator in most Government offices, and apparently he must remain so in the Treasury till Congress relieves the Secretary and Assistant Secretaries from some of their manual labor and so gives them more time for administrative duties.

This sort of unnecessary tax upon the head of the Treasury is not now first complained of. It is an ancient abuse. As long ago as January, 1832, Peter G. Washington complained of it in a paper "On Simplifying the System of Public Accounts," which in January, 1837, was published as House Document No. 71, 24th Congress, 2d session. Why the publication of this paper was delayed for five years is a question on which the public records throw no light. It is a searching criticism of Treasury methods, and might be read with profit by those in authority even at this day. Mr. Washington's comment on the particular point under consideration is this:

"The appropriation to the Secretary of the Treasury of the whole duty of drawing warrants for the payment of all the moneys of the Government was unquestionably a defect in the system [Hamilton's], however small its inconvenience in the early periods of the Government. As it regarded the labor involved, it imposed upon an officer, otherwise sufficiently tasked in matters of the highest interest, duties of an inferior grade, not required by the true object and character of his office."

Though the biographers have neglected Peter G. Washington, the public records show that he was a man well qualified by experience if not otherwise to discuss Treasury methods as they then were. The publication of the first "Blue Book" (1816) found him in that curious and long since forgotten office called in the Blue Book "Accountant's and Additional Accountant's Office," in which Tobias Lear was Accountant and Peter Hagner was Additional Accountant; the powers and duties of the two being identical and coextensive, and they between them auditing all the accounts of the Government. How such a dual authority worked is not related, but probably not well, for the next year (1817) the office was abolished and four auditors created, Peter Hagner becoming Third Auditor and taking with him as clerk Peter Washington. In 1823 Washington was transferred to the Secretary's office. In 1829 he became chief clerk in the Treasurer's office, where he remained till 1836, when, on the establishment of the Sixth Auditor's office (Auditor for the Post-Office Department), he became chief clerk therein, and in 1845 became Sixth Auditor. Surely he had opportunity, if ever man had, to learn what the Treasury needed.

Since Peter G. Washington wrote his treatise on the Treasury methods, the Secretary has been measurably relieved of drudgery by the creation of three assistant secretaries to divide his labors. But while the labor has thus been divided by four, has it not increased a hundredfold or more? Really it must seem that the system now needs mitigation more than ever, and that that need is increasing with accelerating intensity each passing year. This writer has no expert knowledge that would warrant him in attempting to suggest a remedy, but it does not need expert knowledge to draw the conclusion that men who are competent to write official letters and draw warrants that are to be signed and dispatched without reading by the signer, are competent to sign such communications, which even now they are required to authenticate by signing their initials. F. A. CRANDALL.

WASHINGTON, December 7, 1903.

EGYPT EXPLORATION FUND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As chairman of the United States Committee of the Egypt Exploration Fund, I wish to call attention to the special importance of the work to be undertaken in Egypt during the present season. The Egyptian Government has granted permission to Prof. W. M. Flinders Petrie to work for the Fund in the pyramid field of Sakkara, near the step-pyramid, a privilege heretofore reserved to the Cairo Museum. In this comparatively unexplored ground must lie valuable material for restoring the history of the Third Dynasty, and thus connecting the recent discoveries of Petrie at Abydos with the era of the pyramids of Gizeh. The Memoir of the Fund to be published in 1904 will contain the results of this winter's work.

The large collection of papyri which the Græco-Roman Branch of the Fund is now publishing is of special interest to classical scholars and theologians. Each of its four volumes already published contains most instructive and entertaining documents from the Græco-Roman period. A fifth volume is expected in a few days, which contains, among other things, parts of two odes of Pindar, a part of the Kolax of Menander, fragments of the lost Greek original of the Apocalypse of Baruch and of the missing Greek conclusion of the Shepherd of Hermas. Among the papyri now awaiting publication at Oxford is a collection of Sayings of Jesus, similar in style to the well-known Logia; and a part of an epitome of the lost books of Livy, of the third century A. D., differing largely from the epitome now extant. On the back of the latter papyrus is written a part of the Epistle to the Hebrews. In the great mass of these papyri which are still undeciphered or are still buried at Oxyrhynchus there is the delightful possibility of finding even the most precious of the lost classics. The recent discovery of Bacchylides, Herondas, and Aristotle's Constitution of Athens shows that nothing is too improbable to be reasonably anticipated. A large number of the original papyri are now on their way to this country, and others will soon follow; and these will be distributed to various libraries and museums through which substantial contributions to this branch of the Fund may come.

The Fund is entirely dependent on subscriptions for the means of exploring the mounds which contain the papyri. Oxyrhynchus will still supply material for two years' work, and it is important that this should be finished without delay. Sir John Evans, the President of the Fund, has just issued an appeal for increased support to this undertaking, urging the necessity for immediate action, that an opportunity may not be lost "which, considering the rapidly increasing difficulty of finding fresh sites of real promise, is not likely to recur."

WILLIAM W. GOODWIN.

CAMBRIDGE, Mass., December 7, 1903.

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Notes.

A new 'History of North America'—"the first definitive, authoritative, and inclusive narrative history" of the continent, to use the publishers' announcement—is to appear in twenty volumes under the editorship of Guy Carleton Lee, Ph.D., and bearing the imprint of George Barrie & Sons, Philadelphia. We do not gather from the prospectus just what is meant by "definitive" when speaking of this (or any) history, or by "inclusive." It is also to be "non-sectional," in token of which there will be *two* accounts of the civil war, a Northern and a Southern, each as definitive, presumably, as the work taken as a whole, besides chapters on "The Rise of the New South" and "The Development of the North"; "non-partisan" also, and "non-sectarian," but the same duality or multiplicity of treatment does not prevail here. There will be many colaborers, together with an Editorial Board, a Board of Advisers on Exclusion and Inclusion—this for an "inclusive" history—a Board of Advisers on Colonial Affairs, and a Board of Military and Naval Advisers. The work will be sold only in sets.

David William Harmon's 'Journal of Voyages and Travels in the Interior of North America,' dating from the beginning of the last century, will shortly be reprinted by A. S. Barnes & Co.

Forthcoming publications of Macmillan Company are the collected poems (old and new) of Prof. George E. Woodberry; 'The Expansion of Russia, 1815-1900,' by Francis Henry Skrine; and the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' for the sake of facsimile illustrations from the original water-color designs by John Massey Wright, a follower and pupil of Thomas Stothard.

A revised edition of Prof. William Hand Browne's 'Maryland' in the American Commonwealths Series, including the civil-war period, is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., who will also publish in the spring the 'Oligarchy of Venice,' by George B. McClellan.

Lila G. A. Woodfall and Margaret E. Sangster collaborate in 'Presiding Ladies of the White House,' an illustrated series of biographical sketches, emanating from the Bureau of National Literature and Art, Washington.

George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia, announce "The American Crisis Biographies," edited by Ellis P. Oberholtzer, Ph.D., author of a recent Life of Robert Morris.

Fritz Reuter's 'Geschichte Mecklenburgs von Erschaffung der Welt bis auf unsere Zeit' is at last to see the light of day. This, the only historical work of the great Low-German poet and novelist, is after the style of Washington Irving's 'History of New York,' and was entrusted by the author shortly before his death in 1874 to his friend, Karl Krüger, in Mecklenburg, who declared it the best work ever done by Reuter, but advised against publication at the time. Now, it seems, the ban has been removed, and an interesting specimen of original historical writing may be expected. Welbrandt, Reuter's biographer, states that the work was begun as early as 1850.

In the rearrangement made recently in the City Library of Frankfort, a literary find of the first quality resulted, namely, of an edition of the 'Mundus Novus' of Amerigo Vespucci, in which he reports his voyage to Brazil in 1501-1502. Only one copy of this letter is known to exist; discovered in Havana in 1844, it was bought by the British Museum. The Frankfort copy was originally published by Hermann Borckhausen in Rostock. The Strassburg house of Hertz has undertaken the publication of a fine facsimile edition. The document covers four folio sheets, and originally came from the library of Johann Maximilian zum Jungen of Frankfort, who in 1690 presented it to the City Library.

A little more than twenty-two years have elapsed since we reviewed at considerable length the late E. A. Freeman's 'Historical Geography of Europe,' just passing to a second edition. We now receive from the publishers, Longmans, Green & Co., a third edition, under the competent supervision of Prof. J. B. Bury, who has not only judged that this very original and instructive work should be kept alive, but should be periodically brought up to date. Without this freshening it could never become antiquated, as Mr. Bury points out; with it, it may attract a new generation of readers—not mere consulters. The revision, by an unusual but pardonable course, has been intertextual rather than by supplementary appendix. Mr. Bury refrains from modifying Freeman's use of "Aryan" with a racial implication where language is the only ground for such classification; but he utters a warning note. We could have forgiven him had he generally changed Freeman's "Slavonic" to "Slavic." The maps of the accompanying atlas have undergone no change.

Another work owing its vitality to its intrinsic excellence, but also to its extensive use as a text-book for examinations, is the late Sir W. W. Hunter's 'Brief History of the Indian Peoples,' of which the twenty-third edition (eighty-ninth thousand) has just been brought out by the Oxford Clarendon Press (New York: H. Frowde). Like Freeman's History, it, too, has been revised for what time has rendered incorrect, and has been brought up to date.

The 'Essays of Leigh Hunt,' edited by Arthur Symons, and the 'Essays of Douglas Jerrold,' edited by Walter Jerrold, and both illustrated by H. M. Brock, are highly to be praised for the get-up as in keeping with this sort of literature. These are handy volumes, in clear if small type, and very tastefully adorned by the designer.

The humorists must have their new editions along with other classics, and we have on our table Mark Twain's 'Jumping Frog,' illustrated by F. Strothman (Harpers), and 'Phœnixiana,' with illustrations by E. W. Kemble (Appletons). The first and smaller reprint contains, besides the original masterpiece, its rendering into French in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* thirty-one years ago, and the author's retranslation, together with the "private history" of the story, with a reference to a Greek origin. The reissue of the sketches and burlesques of John Phœnix (Lieut. George H. Derby) is a matter of 232 pages. Mr. J. K. Bangs contributes a brief introduction of a biographical nature, and might have told more without being fatiguing. It would also have been well to rearrange the contents (as by bringing the lectures on astronomy together), and to expunge some of the coarser jests. Phœnix is seen at his best in the "New System of English Grammar." It gives one a start to encounter here one of Uncle Remus's stories, "Who Cooks for You-all?"

The purely journalistic production entitled 'The Leopard's Spots: A Romance of the White Man's Burden,' by Thomas Dixon, Jr. (Doubleday, Page & Co.), was written, we are assured, "with the utmost restraint," or attempt thereat. A similar restraint might well have been applied to its being reclothed with a sumptuousness of apparel—even portrait illustrations—more properly reserved for approved literary excellence. However, in any form, it will save a trip to the South for those who wish to study the Southern white attitude towards either the North or the freedmen.

Mr. Henry W. Boynton's 'Bret Harte,' in the Contemporary Men of Letters Series (McClure, Phillips & Co.), is a brief, clear, and readable sketch. His purpose being to consider "soberly what sort of man Bret Harte really was, and what, being that sort of man, he really did," more space is given to inference of character from conduct and from the whole of his author's work than to examination of stories that everybody knows and that need no examination to explain their fame. Mr. Boynton's inferences are reasonable and just, and his feeling about Harte's whole contribution to letters is indicated on his first page thus epigrammatically: "He had one brilliant vision, and spent the rest of his life reminding himself of it." This little book is very well worth reading, especially by those who want a fair view of Harte that shall not make them dislike him.

Lest anybody should be misled by the apparent promise of the title, 'The Book of Italian Travel,' by H. Neville Maugham (Dutton), we will say that the work is an egregiously bad piece of bookmaking. To trace historically the effect of Italian travel on northern Europe, and to compile an anthology of the best things that travellers have said of Italy, would be a pretty task for a skilled hand. Mr. Maugham is unequal to the enterprise. Errors of fact are common in his historical narrative; the chaplet of quotations thrown about Italy, town by town, gives Dickens quite as prominent a position as Ampère. There is no indication of the editions from which extracts are taken, no general bibliography, and no index beyond a perfunctory list of places. Perugia the author knows, but not Prato or Pistoia. For the style, let the following suffice: "The primal Ruskinian offence is the prejudicial selection of special eras or pictures out of the past. We cannot make any truce with this preciosity of finding special meanings or beauties in isolated examples." For an anthologist the sentiment is a delightful one.

A. J. H. Greenidge and A. M. Clay have collected and arranged for the Clarendon Press (New York: H. Frowde) a small volume of 'Sources for Roman History for the years 133-70 B.C.,' a period for which there is no single ancient authority of importance to serve as a guide. The effort has been merely to collect the fragmentary evidence still accessible, not to comment upon it or to reconcile its contradictions. The citations are arranged by years, not by subjects or authors, but indices of subjects and authors relieve somewhat the inconvenience of the chronological order. The collection is far from complete, but many

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references are given to passages not transcribed, and the volume is certainly adapted to be of great service to the average teacher of Roman history in the schools. Cicero occupies several times as much space as any other one authority, while the epitomes of Livy, Sallust, Appian, and Plutarch each furnish considerable material. More than fifty authors are cited.

The "Special Winter Number" of the *Studio* (John Lane) is devoted to an exposition of 'The Genius of J. M. W. Turner' by several writers, and to a large number of interesting reproductions of that artist's works in several mediums. The essays are of very different kinds; M. de la Sizeranne's on "The Oil-Paintings of Turner" being an eloquent rhapsody, more able to show us how he feels about Turner than what Turner was, while the two by Walter Shaw Sparrow on "Turner's Monochromes and Early Water-Colors" and "The Later Water-Colors," and that by C. F. Bell on "Turner and his Engravers," are sober studies of the artist's work as it actually exists. Mr. Sparrow protests that Ruskin's "poetical transports" have greatly hindered the understanding of Turner by producing a "literary atmosphere that settled itself between his pictures and those who wished to study them." It is a pity that his own colleague, on the present occasion, should have wished still further to thicken the mist. The plates, whether in color or in black and white, are well executed, and are so selected as to give an idea of the extraordinary variety of Turner's fantastic genius.

It would be impracticable to itemize the calendar output for the New Year of Ernest Nister, London (New York: Dutton). There is a large variety of colored and illuminated moral and religious cards; there are happy conceits for children, like the Snowball Calendar and Old-Time Memories, even "Our Baby's Calendar" with blue-tile designs; the Little Lovers' Calendar, with Japanese setting; the Venetian, best of all, perhaps; the Paris, with pictures of people and customs, not of buildings; finally, a Phillips Brooks pad and a Robert Louis Stevenson pad on goldenrod and autumn-leaf background.

The action of the Bavarian state authorities, on which we commented last week, in opening the three universities of that kingdom, Munich, Erlangen, and Würzburg, to women on the same conditions as to men, is all the more remarkable because the women contingent in those universities had been exceptionally small. Moreover, Bavaria is exceedingly conservative, and the secondary schools are not generally considered up to the high standard set by Prussia in particular. The Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* urges the Government now to take the next consistent step, namely, to establish regular girls' gymnasia, as has been done by Baden in Carlsruhe and Pforzheim. The private girls' college in Munich is one of the best in Germany, graduating, recently, seven candidates with the *testimonium maturitatis*, which in the case of men at once admits its holder to all the departments of the University.

The anti-foreign crusade which, in a mild form, has been instituted in the universities and the technical schools of Germany for nearly two years, has now crossed the Swiss boundaries and is being rather vigorously enforced there. Here, too, as in the case of the German institutions, it is directed chiefly against Russian women in the medical departments. In Zurich the foreign element among the medical students constitutes 54.4 per cent.; in Geneva it is 77.4 per cent.; in Lausanne 70.5 per cent.; in Bern 68.7 per cent.; and in Basel 7.5 per cent. Of these foreigners no less than 73.2 per cent. are Russian women, who constitute 39.9 per cent. of all the medical students in the Swiss universities. The quota of Russian women is phenomenal in Bern, being no less than 278, or 60.4 per cent. in the department. The number of Russian students in Switzerland has been growing with alarming regularity of recent years, being 1,215 out of a total student body of 4,819, while the number of German students is only 709, and of these but few are students of medicine. The Zurich authorities have now decided that the conditions of admission for foreign students shall be materially raised; the demand being equivalent to the *physicum* examinations required by German universities for the study of medicine proper. This step was taken in justice to the Swiss and other students who can enter only under these conditions, and who have been sadly hampered by the presence of a foreign element not sufficiently prepared to do all the work.

The Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, in reporting the progress made in France with the Sahara Railroad project, states that three routes are under consideration. One of these goes from Igli, about 30° N. latitude, to the Niger; a second goes from Biskra to Lake Tchad, and the third from Biserta to Lake Tchad. The first route would start from the southern part of Morocco, the second from the south of Algiers, and the third from Tunis. Paul Bonnard, an authority of the first rank in all matters pertaining to Government affairs in Africa, has recently published a report in which he strongly urges the adoption of the third route. He does not, however, consider this route sufficient, but purposes another trans-African road to unite the immense French possessions in the Dark Continent, to run from Biserta by way of Lake Tchad to the Congo districts. Military reasons speak for the adoption of this route, and the distance across the Sahara would be about 500 kilometres less.

The fourteenth International Congress of Americanists will meet in Stuttgart next summer, from August 18 to 23, 1904. The three topics for discussion are "The Native Races of America," in all aspects; "The Monuments and Archæology" of this hemisphere; and "The History of the Discovery and Occupation of the New World." Communications may be in English, German, French, Italian, or Spanish. The local General Secretary is Prof. Dr. Kurt Lampert, Archivstrasse 3.

—Dr. Theodore T. Munger opens the current *Atlantic* with a discussion of some of the immediate difficulties of the Church. The chief difficulty, to him, lies in the failure of its leaders to adjust themselves unreservedly to the life of the age, especially to the changes wrought by the doctrine of evolution and by the newer methods of criticism in the field of sacred literature. The division of organized Christianity into so many sects he does not regard as a very serious evil. The attempt to hold really discordant elements together would be much worse. Sir Leslie Stephen's paper deals with his editorial work on the *Cornhill Magazine* and the 'Dictionary of National Biography.' His account of his connection with the latter is especially full and interesting, and might well receive careful study on the part of some of our high-speed dictionary and encyclopædia makers of to-day. Apropos of the Junius problem: "Many of the so-called arguments are on a level with the proofs that Bacon wrote Shakspere: that is, they proceed on the assumption that you conclusively establish a proposition by showing that it does not involve a physical impossibility." The editor gives a searching if brief criticism of Kipling's 'The Five Nations.' With all the evident merits of his verse, Kipling is singularly restricted in range of interest, touching a comparatively narrow segment of human interest. He writes for the young, the restless, the physically aggressive; but the part of the dare-devil, the rough rider, the free-footed pioneer, however useful it has been, is daily growing less significant. "The people who stay at home and earn their bread by commonplace occupations, who put a little money in the savings bank and perhaps go to church on Sunday, are the ones who really sway the fortunes of the world." Mr. Kipling's political and social theories are not much beyond the "beneficent-whip" doctrine of Carlyle. "His voice has never been raised for mankind. He has no word for the oppressed."

—Mr. Ellis Paxson Oberholtzer justifies a new biography of Robert Morris (Macmillan) on the plea that the diary and letters recently purchased by the Library of Congress supplies much new material. It may at once be stated that the author makes no pretence of addressing any other than a popular audience. As a readable and personal account of the man, his work is a success. But Morris was something more than a socially inclined and rather extravagant citizen: he was the first single executive officer replacing a cumbrous committee under the Continental Congress; he was a merchant of known energy and wide connections, whose ventures in colonial days had been attended with success; he was a man of credit, with a touch of daring that made him a speculator to his ultimate ruin; and he possessed a common sense and business experience that enabled him to discern the weak points in the many financial expedients of the Congress and States to obtain funds and circulate their depreciating notes. As a merchant he stood high in his community; as the financier he becomes great because of his insistently preaching a code of high morality in public finance at a time when debt and paper money were the sole objects of legislation. Morris demanded money, and the States pleaded their poverty, their indebtedness, and their heavy sacrifices. In the end the States won and Morris resigned.

—To understand such a character and his position, a careful study must be made of the conditions of the colonies and States before and after the war. The application of economic principles to these conditions will explain how such as man as Morris became possible, and why he gained so great an influence with his contemporaries. Mr. Oberholtzer has not written as an historian or as an economist, and it is not strange, therefore, that his study is disappointing. The extracts from Morris's letters are

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largely personal, and the social relations of the man are much emphasized. The reader, however pleased by the smooth and somewhat florid writer, misses what he would expect to find—an explanation of Morris's various successes and failures. Professor Sumner's book is much more illuminating, although he did not have access to the Morris papers. No one has yet pointed out in detail how so many merchants who had been successful before the Revolution failed after it, and thereby proved their incapacity to meet the new conditions. The awful debauch in paper money, the uncertainty of the times, the freedom from the burdens of taxation, and the presence of speculators willing to take any risk, produced a new type of "moneyed men" before whom the older generation went to the wall. When the elders became gamblers, as Morris did, they found themselves overmatched. Jefferson's denunciations of the new type were frequent and violent, but he was correct in recognizing its advent and influence. If Mr. Oberholtzer has failed to explain Morris's career, he has produced a very readable book, which will give the reader a true conception of the great debt of gratitude due to Morris for preaching honesty in public life when he stood in a position to gain by a contrary course.

—'The Dutch Founding of New York' (Harper & Bros.) is precisely the half serious, half humorous account of the affair one might have expected from the pen of Mr. Thomas A. Janvier. It is not and does not pretend to be an exhaustive history of the Dutch period; it is not even a brief chronological summary of the period. It is a chatty, irresponsible, and interesting discussion of various questions which suggest themselves to the author. If Mr. Janvier had any purpose other than the writing of piquant English, it appears to have been to efface as far as possible "the highly untruthful impression of the Dutch colonists of Manhattan given by Washington Irving"—a task which he admits is all but hopeless, because "artful fiction" is more convincing than "artless fact," and "Irving's delightful history" is "very subtly mendacious." Mr. Janvier protests that the Dutch were not "sleepy." On the contrary, they were very much awake—so much so that the author finds nothing easier than to draw analogies between their actions and those of very keen people of our own time, such as the Albany politicians or Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, for example. Perplexing questions, like the relative soundness of Dutch and English claims to Manhattan, or the ethical character of the English conquest, are gracefully evaded by Mr. Janvier. He is content to show that natural causes made the English conquest inevitable. Nor does he lack good reasons for thinking that the result was beneficial to all concerned, most of all to the Dutch colonists themselves, involving "escape from a harsh and incompetent government that crushed trade and that did much to make life unendurable, to the fostering care of a government that developed trade in every direction, and that in its treatment of individuals erred on the side of laxness" (p. 193). There are some excellent illustrations, notably a portrait of Wesselinx. Mr. Janvier's quaint humor is not improved by the too frequent use of slang phrases, such as "light sparring of the second round" (p. 37), "clean fall" (p. 39), "won through" (p. 44), etc. His judgment is generally correct, though he certainly overestimates the ability of the excellent and wordy Bellomont (pp. 110, 195). The index is good. The book is well printed on excellent paper, and tastefully bound.

—'Select Statutes and Other Documents Illustrative of the History of the United States, 1861-1898,' edited with notes by William MacDonald, has appeared from the press of the Macmillan Co. It is the third of a series covering the whole field of American history which Professor MacDonald has prepared for use in schools and colleges—a series already so well and favorably known that, in characterizing the present volume, it is scarcely necessary to say more than that it does for the period of 1861-1898 essentially what the 'Charters' did for the colonial period, and the 'Documents' did for the period 1775-1861. Two points should, however, be noted. The first is that precisely one-half the space is devoted to the eight years following 1861, while 82 of the 131 documents fall within the same period. Another point to be noticed is the entire omission of documents relating to the Public Lands and of all court decisions. Professor MacDonald explains these omissions by saying: "I have thought it better to omit entire classes of documents—for example, those relating to the Public Lands—rather than to give a topic, however important, a fragmentary representation." In excluding the subject designated, Professor MacDonald has necessarily excluded the subjects of education and railroad transportation. Teachers, we believe, will not altogether agree with the compiler as to the wisdom of these omissions. For purposes of class-room work it is neither necessary nor desirable that any topic should be exhausted; what the teacher wants is important or typical documents, sometimes in full, often only in important parts. We doubt, indeed, if there is any teacher of American history, who makes use of Professor MacDonald's series at all, that would not choose to have had him include the act for the Land Grant colleges, the Homestead Act, portions of three or four important Supreme Court decisions, such as the Slaughter House cases and the Legal Tender cases, rather than that these subjects should be ignored. Aside from this qualification, the work of editing has been well done, and Professor MacDonald is to be congratulated on having completed a task which was so well worth doing.

—From the Macmillan Co. we have 'The Life and Public Services of Simon Sterne,' by John Foord. Properly enough, it is the public services of this public-spirited man that are made prominent. Hardly had he come to man's estate when he began his career as the advocate of political reform, and there has been no movement to better our State for a generation that did not receive vigorous and enlightened support from his tongue and pen. He was one of the founders of the American Free Trade League, and perhaps the chief expounder of the scheme of proportional representation devised by Thomas Hare. He was the secretary of the celebrated Committee of Seventy, which did so much to rescue the city of New York from the Tweed administration; and the charter presented by the committee was largely prepared by him. Although Governor Hoffman vetoed this charter, many of its features have been gradually adopted. Proportional representation is still in futurity. Perhaps the most distinguished service rendered by Mr. Sterne was as counsel before the legislative committee which, in 1879, investigated the conduct of their business by the railroad managers. The evidence brought out by Mr. Sterne's mastery of the subject was of the highest value, and his summary of the case is a classic in the literature of economics. The labor performed by Mr Sterne in his multifarious activity was enormous, and without ever holding office he may be said to have worn himself out in the public service. He succeeded in passing few of the measures which he urged, but the country would have been fortunate had it accepted his guidance. It will be fortunate if it has citizens who will labor for its welfare with his ability and his devotion.

—A year ago the *Nation* called attention to the first volume of Kirchner's 'Prosopographia Attica' (Berlin: Reimer) as a valuable auxiliary for students of Athenian history and biography, being especially useful to those who desire to consult the original sources of knowledge. The second volume has now appeared, completing the work. The first volume contained in alphabetical order the names of nearly nine thousand citizens of Attica; the second volume contains more than six thousand such names, with precise references to the inscriptions or works of literature in which these names occur. Occasionally convenient genealogical tables are inserted, *e. g.*, for the family of Plato, from 644 to 328 B. C., and an even larger table for the family of Megacles. Fitly enough, no other man receives so much space as Pericles, for whose life the references cover four pages, while two pages each are given to Plato and Sophocles, with a little less for Socrates. The names of the favorite Athenian divinities, for whom children were named, belong to the first half of the alphabet, and no name occurs so frequently in the second volume as several in the first volume. Most frequent here are the names formed on the stem of *Nikĕ, victory*, as Nicias (of 58 persons), Nicocles (24), Nicodemus (22), Nicomachus (35), and Nicostratus (55). An appendix, in somewhat smaller type, contains the same names, arranged by demes, with references to the main work. This enables the reader to see at a glance the political connections, and, though chance has had much to do with the preservation of lists of names, of this deme or of that, yet we find, as we expect, more names (374) of members of the Acharnian deme than of any other, while of the Hippotomadai only seven are known. A second appendix gives a convenient list of Athenian archons and scribes, with references to the body of the work, extending to about the beginning of our era.

EVOLUTION OF THE JAPANESE.

Evolution of the Japanese, Social and Psychic. By Sidney L. Gulick. New York: Fleming H. Revell Co.

This work is a serious inquiry into the question of the ability of the Japanese islanders to become, in their social organization and in the workings of their minds, a

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substantially different people, similar in all vital respects to those in the Occident or of the most advanced nations of the world. The author asks whether there is any real reason why the Japanese of, say, the twentieth or twenty-fifth century must reproduce in himself the type of the individual in society of the Japan of the eighteenth century. Are heredity and environment invincible, or may both be very materially transformed?

Dr. Gulick answers most decidedly that they can; that Japan has already been, in part, self-reformatory, and is likely to be in the future even more so. He thinks that a great many foreign writers have kept up an illusion by picturing this nation as passing through a revolution instead of an evolution. Their superficial views and methods of interpretation are, in his view, fundamentally erroneous. "Never, perhaps, has the progress of a nation been so manifestly an evolution as distinguished from revolution. . . . The actual process by which Old Japan has been transformed into New Japan is perfectly natural and necessary, . . . a development from within, based upon already existing ideas and institutions. . . . New Japan is the consequence of old endowment and new environment." In a word, evolution, the progress of which can be traced for at least a millennium and a half, has prepared the nation for its latest step. What was necessary was an alteration of environment. Dr. Gulick notes the danger into which many fall of ascribing to Japan an attainment of Western civilization which the facts will not warrant. She has secured much, but by no means all that the West can give.

Besides his experiences in Hawaii, and the fact that he is master of his subject on the academic side, Dr. Gulick has had other advantages for such a study. He has spent many years of residence in Japan as a teacher of the Japanese, so that he knows the working of the native mind, is familiar with its photographs in literature, and has studied the native civilization in Kiushiu, one of its oldest seats. His book of 457 pages would have been improved by condensation, and the argument would have been strengthened by being shortened one-half. Furthermore, his contention could have been reinforced by the study of the Japanese physique, for here some of the changes within a generation have been startling. In the sixties, practical musicians and medically trained Western students of the native voice declared it to be a physical impossibility for a Japanese, even when caught young, to master our diatonic scale. They even went so far as to plan a new system of notation for the American schools in Japan. Nevertheless, one lady, who believed in the power of aid through human inspiration and in the psychic moment, after having labored long and faithfully with a single boy, astounded the savants by having her class sing the standard tunes of America and Europe. Not only do Japanese vocalists now sing difficult operatic pieces, but the late E. H. House, a director of the Imperial Court Orchestra, with trained natives, rendered oratorios in Tokio.

The use of the chair has lengthened the legs of the Japanese, after centuries of vicious habits of sitting had shortened them. Long squatting for hours at a time on the mats, with limbs doubled up under them in chairless rooms, lack of exercise, and poor diet, made them dwarfish. While of right proportions above the middle, the Japanese man was deficient in stature below, through the shortness of the legs, even to the extent of from half an inch to two inches. Now, after a generation of chairs, tables, and the changed school and house attitude, aided by improved exercise and diet, the legs of the present generation have notably increased, averaging in the school population an inch. In the army and navy, not only have the old decimating diseases been almost wholly eliminated, but weight and stature have increased and the average length of life also. In the navy, twenty thousand men, weighed and kept under close examination during five years, showed an increase of avoirdupois as compared with those of the average in the previous generation of over three pounds.

Confining himself, however, to social and psychic matters, Dr. Gulick, after preliminary discussion, demonstrates the great sensitiveness of the Japanese to environment. He pictures their extreme emotionalism, hero-worship, love for children, cheerfulness, industry, and manifold other qualities which reveal a rich and varied nature. The abundance and range of his illustrations show that he is far better acquainted with the Japanese, to-day and historically, than are most of the writers on Japan. As respects humane feelings, it is demonstrated that customs and habits which, in the matter of cruelty, have shocked every foreign resident, were the result of certain systems of ideas—a sociological not a biological characteristic. Above all things, the Japanese are æsthetic, but in their development of art they are unbalanced. Slight attention is paid to the human form, and fondness for the abnormal in nature is marked. While it may be true that "Western taste debases Japanese art," there is much aboriginal æsthetic defect, a subject on which native writers are not entirely silent

The author thinks that Professor Chamberlain and others have exaggerated Japanese "imitation." He instances the remarkable developments which Buddhism in Japan has undergone, and the many original accretions it has received. He attributes much Occidental misunderstanding to our ignorance of a true Japanese history of thought. Certainly, the field of the history of Japanese morals and development of thought awaits some Lecky. Furthermore, in all attempts to make a map of the Japanese mind, or to discuss environment and supposed heredity, one must remember the incubus of governmental initiative, which hampered Japanese growth very much as a gardener dwarfs pine trees to the height of inches. In a word, the Japanese is in moral action very much of an automaton, and is a gregarious member of a flock, not an asserter of individuality. Very few have inquired into the reasons of the gentleness and politeness of the Japanese common people. Those who have done so know that these are not alone of Buddhism, but of a thousand years of oppression by the sword. So, also, the astonishing docility of the women of old Japan, from the Empress to the *eta*, is the direct result of environment, and of repression sternly exercised for ages. It is highly probable that the Chinese woman, in breadth of training in the practical pursuits of life on the higher levels, was the superior of her Japanese sister. Though foreigners are surprised at the vigor of the Empress Dowager in Peking, there seems nothing extraordinary in such a phenomenon, when possibilities and training are considered. On the contrary, in Japan, the Emperor's wife was not, until within the present reign, an Empress in the Occidental sense of the term. She was merely a lady selected from among the eligible daughters of certain families and gazetted on a certain day as the consort of the Son of Heaven, but was without those great personal or official honors such as are naturally in Western minds associated with the station. There are, indeed, nine names of female mikados, but these all occur in the days when the throne was as to power only a shadow. Such a state of things could not exist in the change of atmosphere and environment. Hence in treaty days, and especially since Japan has been admitted to the equality of nations, all this has been changed. One of the things which the Japanese took most to heart was the refusal of foreign courts to go into mourning when the mother of the present Emperor, who was a concubine and not the original Empress herself, died. Nothing is more remarkable or more marks the real advance of Japan than this exaltation of woman in the person of the Empress. Furthermore, the average Japanese maiden of to-day, in her outlook on the world, her longings and possibilities, is a very different person from her grandmother.

Dr. Gulick handles all those subjects connected with the inner life of the Japanese Court and family with delicacy and proper reserve, yet with frankness and clearness, in the interests of truth. Many of his statements must give pain to his Japanese friends; and yet, if the new allies of Great Britain are to receive permanently real recognition of equality before the world, and not merely the empty forms of diplomacy and politeness, these subjects must be put under the X-ray of scientific scrutiny. The author's discussion of what constitutes modesty or immodesty is interesting, not because of a Yankee parson's pious horror, but because he treats the "natural indifference of the Japanese to the exposure of the unclothed body as an interesting fact." Lafcadio Hearn has said that what we term privacy in the Occident does not exist in Japan. The language lacks the term. It is not easy to explain the English word, nor have they any clear idea of privacy, because they lack the practice. The promiscuous use by both sexes in nudity of a public bath house, and a multitude of other facts, show conclusively that the Japanese is still a gregarious being. He has not reached the Western sense of individuality.

As against those writers who have touched the psychology of the Japanese on the surface, Dr. Gulick denies that the Japanese are "impersonal." He supports well his argument from language and from intimate personal knowledge, and, in a luminous chapter devoted to examination of Buddhism, he proves that it is abstract, but not impersonal. He examines the traces of personality in the three religious systems of Buddha, and Confucius, and Shinto, reaching the conclusion that the Japanese social and psychic characteristics are not inherent. He doubts, and he doubts like a master, whether the East is inherently

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meditative and the West active, and gives his verdict that the Japanese evolution, social and psychic, is not exceptional, but according to law. The work is a real addition to science.

Recollections, Personal and Literary. By Richard Henry Stoddard. Edited by Ripley Hitchcock, with an Introduction by Edmund Clarence Stedman. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1903.

The defects of these Recollections are obvious, but they have qualities that amply justify their publication. It is not, perhaps, a defect that, after reading them, one feels that he would now like to read a good biography of Stoddard. Writing them, he was thinking much more of his friends than of himself, and he has not given us a connected account of his personal and literary life, while the criticism on the latter which a good biography would include is quite absolutely wanting here. The different chapters seem to have been written independently of each other for the most part, and there are serious gaps in the course of the writer's life as here described, and some things hard to understand. We have, in short, an old man's book, with little of dry light upon the page; with here and there a blotted line, as if memory had exacted the tribute of "some natural tears."

Mr. Stoddard's recollections are the more interesting because they do something to redress the scales of literary reminiscence, in which the preponderance of Boston men and things has heretofore been conspicuous. For though Stoddard was born near Boston, the greater part of his life was spent in New York, and, hardly less than Poe, he maintained an attitude distrustful of the superiority of the Boston literary set. It is plain that he shared Poe's indifference to Emerson, and in general his dislike for the intellectual seriousness and moral passion of the New England school. The didacticism of Longfellow was an offence to him, and he would have liked Lowell better if he had abstained from anti-slavery and other reformatory poems. In this respect Whittier was to him an object of particular dislike. On the other hand, he was much drawn to Hawthorne, sympathizing, with his Democratic politics and his aloofness from the anti-slavery reform. Seeking to forward his prospects for a Government office, Hawthorne wrote a letter of advice to him which was extremely shrewd and cynical—one sign of many of a certain duality in Hawthorne, a level of taste, if not of character, below that of his genius. That politics as well as misery makes strange bedfellows, is shown by such a conjunction in Stoddard's favor as that of Hawthorne and the Hon. Charles G. Atherton, best known in anti-slavery circles as the inventor of "Atherton's gag," a device for choking off anti-slavery petitions.

Stoddard's story of his boyhood is a painful one. His was that greatest of all possible misfortunes, a mother whom he could not respect or love. She subjected him to work for which he had no aptitude or sufficient strength, culminating in an iron-foundry from his eighteenth year till his twenty-first. If he had not been born a poet, he would not have been made one by these hard conditions. The wonder is that they did not kill at once the poet and the boy. The most serious gap in the narration is between the close of the iron-foundry period and his beginning at the Custom House—seven years that must have been highly significant. Doubtless particulars are given that were related to these years, but the relation is not made plain in a chronological sequence. "My Life in the Custom House" is a chapter that introduces us to some of Stoddard's Custom House acquaintances. One of these was Capt. Rynders, under whose genial auspices Mr. Stoddard and his wife went to a Tammany ball. Nowhere does Mr. Stoddard commend more boldly than when writing of his wife's literary performance, and probably nowhere more justly. They married, trusting much to an uncertain future; but the Custom House appointment soon followed, and on three dollars *per diem* they found themselves rich beyond the dreams of avarice.

What is written here of N. P. Willis is a generous appeal from the usual depreciation of that picturesque representative of an earlier society. It was his "Saturday Afternoon" that first touched the poetic sensibility of young Stoddard's mind. Some deduction must certainly be made from Willis's standing as a poet and a gentleman as given here, but his great consideration for and kindness towards young authors are not too cordially approved. Bayard Taylor was one of his discoveries, and Taylor's 'Views Afoot' took up the parable of Willis's 'Pencillings by the Way.' Taylor and Stoddard were the best of friends, and the rank assigned to Taylor is accordingly as flattering as the chapter which Mr. Stedman assigned to him in his 'Poets of America,' thereby exciting many doubts. There can, however, be no doubt of the mutual incitements of Taylor and Stoddard, convivial and poetic. Hardly less prized than Taylor was Boker; and another "likable young poet," to whom he was much drawn, was Stedman, of whose "Penelope" he writes with fine bravado that it "was and is worthy to be read with Tennyson's 'Ulysses.'" Much of the way we skirt the coasts of Bohemia in a delightful manner, making a landing at "Read's Home at Bordentown." The "Glimpses of Thackeray" add little to our previous impressions. A chapter on Bryant is the most solid in the book, and was probably written for the most part at the time of Bryant's death. Imagination is claimed for his poems above all others written in America, and a form of "blank verse which is the best that has been written by any modern poet." It should be understood that when he writes of Cummington, Bryant's birth-town, as standing in "a broad highland region," he writes of old Cummington. Cummington is now distinctively a valley town; and when we read of "the quiet waters of the Westfield," we know that Stoddard never saw its scanty water worried by a stony bed.

One chapter, "Meetings with Poe," would add fuel to a flame that burns hot enough already if Stoddard's view of Poe had not long since been duly weighed and measured against others of a more favorable character. When Stoddard brought Poe an "Ode on a Grecian Flute," Poe did not dissemble his doubt of Stoddard's ability to write it, and came near to kicking him down stairs. The outrage veiled a flattery, and with this reflection the young poet salved his wounded pride. There is nothing flattering in Stoddard's characterization either of Poe's genius or of his character; neither is there anything final. Poe was no doubt "a curious compound of the charlatan and the courtly gentleman," and both mendacious and dishonest, taking money on the promise to review a worthless book and not keeping his promise. That "his invention was boundless" is an astonishing judgment, and that "his later poems are simply melodious madness" is not one that will stand. Indeed, these 'Recollections,' as a whole, are more entertaining for the liveliness of their personal equation than convincing on their critical side; nor does it appear that Mr. Stoddard's sense of the value of mere facts was so keen as his scent upon the trail of that fugitive beauty of expression, the desire for which was the alluring passion of his life.

The library edition of these Recollections is the comely product of the University Press at Cambridge, Mass., and the typographic excellence is glorified in the large-paper edition, limited to 200 copies, printed on Strathmore Japan paper, and much more copiously illustrated with portraits and with a remarkable series of literary autographs, English and American. The binding is harmoniously elegant, in vellum back and blue paper sides.

Highways and Byways in South Wales. By A. G. Bradley. The Macmillan Co. 1903.

The American tourist is too apt to take his impression of Wales from the coasts of the northern counties, overrun in the tourist season by Saxons from Liverpool and the manufacturing towns of the northwest of England. He is lucky if he can keep his memory of Conway and its beauties unobscured by the desolating vision of the lodging houses and villas of Llandudno or Penmaenmawr. If he wants to see into the heart of "wild Wales" he must give the coast watering-places a wide berth and travel southward, inland, through beautiful Merioneth into Radnor, where Mr. Bradley's book will be his best guide to the scenery and life of South Wales. Mr. Bradley is an historian with an antiquarian bent, and for one who reads his book the complex and neglected history of Wales, her patriots, her partisans, the romance and pathos that are inevitable in the story of a Celtic nation, will unfold much of its interest. The tangled tale of the Lord Marchers and their struggles against each other and the Anglo-Normans, until Henry VIII. reorganized the principality and called Welshmen to the English Parliament, must always seem a confused Iliad of violent deeds. But one must know at least its outlines or fail to understand the topography of Wales; the significance of its feudal castles, the strategic points of that great battlefield in the days, when

"A post from Wales, laden with heavy news,"

could shake the English court and balk Henry the Fourth's plans for a crusade. Through Mr. Bradley's pages, "the irregular and wild Glendower," the Llewelyns, and the other native princes whose personalities, after 800 years, overshadow each his own special region, gradually become familiar and distinct. This personal note in

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the atmosphere of Wales is wholly un-English. Over England

"the Norman conquest hangs like a pall, enveloping the whole country, and, in the ordinary mortal's mind, quite devoid of local name or luminous incident. Only a student here and there could link his Wiltshire or his Hampshire or his Suffolk with any ruling race or personality connected with that period. . . . But in Wales and the Marches, the story is plain for every one to read. These men who carved out kingdoms, and made laws, and built great buildings, and fought scores of bloody fights, . . . are household words. . . . Fancy any part of Wales having to fall back on recent fiction to vitalize its landscape!" (p. 373).

The conquered have, indeed, long memories; how should it be otherwise, seeing that only the past is theirs? In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries Wales truly lived; was in the world of action. Now, where the bloodiest battles were fought you may see in South Wales wide stretches of bog and moorland, with turf-cutters and shepherds for the only population—Ireland itself, one would think, only that the hamlets and lonely cottages show no signs of dilapidation and dirt. Ireland has many old castles, but none that compare with the great feudal castles of Wales, standing out on the hills and scowling at you from miles off. It was from South Wales that Doré is supposed to have drawn those wonderful and weird castles and gloomy forests with which he illustrates the 'Idylls.'

The literary history of South Wales deserves some notice. Mr. Bradley often finds himself following in the footsteps of George Borrow, or of Drayton or Dyer the poets, or of the eccentric Lady Hester Stanhope, who, after the death of General Moore, retired from the world to settle at Builth in the Wye valley. Mrs. Siddons and Charles Kemble were born at Brecon. But the most interesting of these more modern associations is that of Shelley, who for a time made his home in Radnor in a country house named Cwom Elan. After his abrupt departure from Oxford in 1811, Shelley came to stay with his cousins in the Elan valley, and in the following year brought his young wife Harriet to Nantgwyllt, a neighboring grange. An old woman still alive in 1878 is reported to have remembered Shelley as "an eccentric but winsome-looking lad, who used to amuse himself by descending the rushing torrent of the Elan on a plank, and on one occasion, at any rate, she could recollect him sharing his narrow bark with a protesting cat" (p. 90). Those interested in the haunts of Shelley may regret to learn that both the houses in which he lived in the Elan valley will soon be submerged by the lake which is being constructed by the corporation of Birmingham as a part of its gigantic waterworks. Two or three years, however, must pass before the great dam is completed. It is to be two hundred yards in length, well over a hundred feet in height, and as many in width at the base. Over it will pour continually two or three feet of compensation water which the corporation is bound to pay into the River Wye. Thus the largest cataract in the kingdom will be evolved from this utilitarian scheme, which, when the works of construction are taken away, will give to this part of Wales several new lakes and an assured solitude in its beautiful mountains. Eight millions sterling is to be spent on the waterworks; the water will be carried through seventy miles of aqueduct to Birmingham at the rate of sixty million gallons a day. The system will have an important effect on the waters of the River Wye, which will be much to the advantage of those who boat and fish in that most famous of Welsh rivers. At present its supply of water is very uneven, frequently disorganized by freshets from the mountain streams; but by means of the compensation water of the Birmingham reservoirs a steady flow will be maintained.

Mr. Bradley gives an interesting account of "knappan," a sort of national Welsh football, in which the ball was thrown instead of kicked. "The distance between the goals was several miles, running with the ball was the chief method, and the players reached, on occasions the formidable number of two thousand." The ball was of hard wood, well greased, and could just be grasped in one hand. The matches were between particular districts, and the game was regarded as the best training for war. Horsemen took part, and were allowed to ride with the ball; there were no spectators, because if one came near enough to look on, one was forced into the game. George Owen relates that in 1588 the Spaniards were off the coast with their "not truely termed invincible navy." A great match of knappan was going on in view of the sea, and a mariner sailing by asked how peace would be restored, and was surprised when he heard it was all a pastime. "If this be playe," he said, "I could wish the Spaniards were here to see our plaies in England, certes they would be in bodily fear of our warre." These knappan players were no doubt the ancestors of the South Welshmen who have for years beaten the pick of all England at Rugby football.

The distribution of the language is, as one would expect, most uneven. Welsh shows little sign of dying out, and you will often stumble on a district where English is of no use to the traveller. A few miles farther on, a Welshman would be as unintelligible to the inhabitants. The Welsh maintain a natural barrier of exclusiveness that has lasted for eight centuries. They have maintained it, too, without the quarrels or feuds of the Scotch-Irish. But the English and Welsh in such a county as Pembrokeshire, which contains a little insulated district where pure English is spoken, keep obstinately separate. A Welshman appointed to any office in that English district would be politely ignored, literally *tabooed*. The English, who were planted there by Strongbow, have remained absolutely apart in their "Little England beyond Wales." The Welsh are fully as exclusive. Only on the actual border is a certain amount of inevitable fusion of the Celt and Saxon.

Mr. Bradley does not include Glamorgan or Monmouth in his descriptive tours. The latter is technically outside Wales; but it is unfortunate that Glamorgan, which, in spite of its industries, possesses some of the finest scenery in Wales, should have been left out of so excellent a guide-book. The numerous illustrations by Mr. F. L. Griggs are fully up to the standard of the other volumes of this charming series.

Thirty Years of Musical Life in London. By Hermann Klein. The Century Co. 1903.

The question whether a musical critic should be on terms of personal acquaintance with the artists he has to comment on, has been often discussed. Mr. Klein, who was one of London's leading critics for more than a quarter of a century, touches on it in his preface. "I trust," he says, "that I have succeeded in accomplishing my task without overstepping the border line which should separate the friend from the critic. I have always watched that delicate yet important boundary with scrupulous care; and, happily, I have found it easy to obey without loss of good-will or esteem on either side." Readers of his book will soon discover that he is one of those who would rather dwell on the merits of artists than on their shortcomings This attitude made it easier for him to be intimate not only with the great men and women of the musical world, but with many of the lesser lights. He had the privilege of being well acquainted with most of the ninety-seven well-known musicians whose portraits adorn his volume; he has many interesting things to say about them, and his book may be briefly described as a "personal" history of music in London during the last three decades of the nineteenth century.

Mr. Klein's early reminiscences call attention to the fact that not till thirteen years before Wagner's death was one of his operas performed at Covent Garden. It was "The Flying Dutchman," masquerading under the Italian title of "L'Ollandese Dannato." Five years later (1875) came "Lohengrin," which got what Mr. Klein is inclined to think was the worst performance of it ever seen at an important theatre. And yet "it culminated in a tremendous climax of enthusiasm," and Mr. Mapleson promptly mounted it at Her Majesty's with a cast including Nilsson, Tietjens, Campanini, and Galassi, but with a counterweight at the conductor's desk in Sir Michael Costa, whose chief interest used to centre in the proceeding of the swan, of which he invariably spoke contemptuously as "dat goose." From this time to the end of the century Mr. Klein gives an interesting history of Wagnerian opera in London. It was his privilege to determine the course of events in a vital manner; he dwells with justifiable pride on his successful efforts, one summer at Ems, to interest the De Reszke brothers and Lassalle in "Die Meistersinger"—efforts which led to their going to Bayreuth in 1888, and, after hearing it there, making up their minds promptly to appear in it themselves—at first, of course, in Italian, which at that time was the universal language of grand opera, except in France and Germany. As late as 1896 there was the absurd spectacle of "Die Walküre" in French, to please Alvarez. But gradually, under Sir Augustus Harris, the policy was carried through of performing each opera in its proper language.

It was as friend and adviser of Harris that Mr. Klein had further opportunities to shape the course of events. One of the most interesting episodes described by him was a visit to Spain to secure singers and, incidentally, scenic local color for a performance of "Carmen." On one occasion, when there was a sort of gala night, Harris imagined it would be interesting to have all of his three conductors alternate in it; the result was such that "the childish ex-

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periment was never tried again." One of the luckiest incidents in Mr. Klein's career was an accident which placed him alone with Tchaikovsky in a railway carriage on a trip to Cambridge. Particularly readable, too, is a long talk which he had with Dvorák (pp. 163-169). We also meet, more than once, with Sir Arthur Sullivan, whose weak point was his hatred of foreigners, which made him object even to the presence in England of Hans Richter. Sullivan was for many years a bitter opponent of Wagner, but in 1893 Mr. Klein came across him at the opera one evening listening to "Die Meistersinger," with the full score before him. "You see," he said, "I am taking a lesson. Well, why not? This is not only Wagner's masterpiece, but the greatest comic opera ever written."

A number of interesting letters from great artists to Mr. Klein are included in this volume. In an account of his first appearance before the Queen at Windsor, Jean de Reszke writes:

"I found her extremely well, charming in manner, speaking French like a Parisian, and a genuine lover of music—as one could easily see by her eyes and in the movements of the head with which she emphasized the chief passages."

There are several letters from Mme. Patti, and detailed accounts of her life and amusements at her Welsh castle. Mr. Klein coached her in her first attempts to sing Wagner. In 1901 she went to Bayreuth, and shortly afterwards she wrote:

"I must send you first these few lines to tell you how immensely I was impressed by the Bayreuth performances. I never could have imagined anything so perfect as the *mise en scène*, and I thought the 'Ring' simply divine. There are no words to express it; it is all so wonderful and beautiful. I thought 'Parsifal' was *glorious*, especially the last act, and I am indeed glad to have heard all these marvellous works."

Notes and Reminiscences of a Staff Officer. By Col. Basil Jackson. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1903.

In 1877 Col. Jackson, who was a veteran and hero of Waterloo, printed for private circulation a little volume entitled as above. It is now republished by permission of Mrs. Simcoe, the author's daughter, and Mr. R. C. Seaton has added to the text a set of notes. Col. Jackson's jottings cannot be styled an autobiography, for they are too fragmentary and limited to deserve that name. They are neither pretentious nor labored, and their air of simplicity gives them at least the guise of truth. Two historical incidents, and only two, are dealt with—the Waterloo campaign and the treatment of Napoleon at St. Helena.

In the Waterloo campaign, Col. Jackson was intrusted by Sir Hudson Lowe with the task of surveying routes, and one of his reports, transmitted to Gneisenau, seems to have determined the course which the Prussians followed after the battle of Ligny. One must distinguish between the narrative and the critical portions of the present work, the former being decidedly the more important. There are, to be sure, obvious errors in statement of fact (as when it is said that Napoleon gave Soult no command during the Hundred Days), but these slips relate in the main to matters which lay beyond the writer's own range of vision. On the side of criticism, Col. Jackson's most interesting remark relates to Waterloo:

"The tardiness of the allied generals, especially Wellington, may be said to have jeopardized the fate of Europe; for had both armies been so situated as to afford each other mutual support, a single battle would have settled the campaign; for the Allies would have engaged with a force nearly double that of the French; the result, therefore, could scarcely have been doubtful. . . . But nothing succeeds like success. The Duke is reported to have said that, if he got into a scrape, his soldiers got him out of it. I cannot but think that Waterloo is a striking instance."

More important than Col. Jackson's criticisms upon Waterloo are his statements regarding St. Helena. Mr. Seaton, the editor, is the Forsyth of the present generation, and has already defended Sir Hudson Lowe with great vigor. His part in securing the reprint of these 'Notes' may, perhaps, be traced to his wish that Lowe's memory should be freed from reproach by the publication of favorable testimony. He contradicts the statement which appears in the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' that a son of Sir Hudson Lowe married a daughter of Col. Jackson. As a matter of fact, the persons in question were not even acquainted with each other. Jackson served Lowe and was devoted to him. He was also on intimate terms with the members of the Longwood staff—Bertrand, Montholon, Las Cases, and Gourgaud. The anecdotes of the Emperor which are related in these pages seem almost uniformly unfriendly, and long quotations from Forsyth add little to the value of the narrative. At the same time, Col. Jackson's defence of Sir Hudson Lowe must be accorded considerable weight. He says in so many words that his principal object in writing about St. Helena is to justify the Governor against the aspersions of the Emperor and his friends. The biographical sketch of Lowe which follows this profession of purpose is simply a résumé of military services, accompanied by a strong encomium from Gneisenau. The chief thing is, that Jackson felt a good deal of enthusiasm for his superior, and was willing to come out strongly in defence of his fame. The narrative may, on the whole, be called an artless one, but running through it is a spirit that finds expression in the words with which Jackson closes: "I think that those of my friends to whom I shall send copies of my little publication, will now be of opinion that I may take a pride in having been honored with the regard of Sir Hudson Lowe."

Wood-Carving: Design and Workmanship. By George Jack. With drawings by the author and other illustrations. D. Appleton & Co. 1903.

The aim of the Artistic Crafts Series, edited by W. R. Lethaby, to which Mr. Jack's present handbook belongs, is to put before art students the advantages of being trained in the artistic crafts as a means of making a remunerative career, rather than attempting to be painters and sculptors without any very special genius. The increasing demand for decoration in every form brought about by the lavish expenditure of the wealthy should furnish employment to those who, by patient application and perseverance, attain the dexterity of hand and perfection of workmanship which are indispensable as equipment for artistic crafts. Mr. Jack considers that there is a life's work to be well expended in the practice of wood-carving for any one who has enthusiasm to follow the development of this art, closely allied to architecture and sculpture in the past. He treats of wood-carving from the point of view of the trained workman, and gives efficient advice as to the implements required, and how to handle them; but he counsels the serious student to apprentice himself to a good craftsman, in order to acquire the manual practice and the traditional expedients not otherwise to be attained. He insists, however, that this apprenticeship must not preclude the development of the intellectual side of the art and the wide possibilities it offers, since invention and execution should progress together. He gives valuable hints as to how far it is desirable to revert to the past in choosing subjects and in the treatment of them. To be well equipped, the student must be a trained draughtsman; he must also study architecture, which ought to be regarded as a larger kind of carving, since, when he attains proficiency, he will seek architectural occasions for wood-carving. Mr. Jack urges the student to be a close observer of nature, and to study the form of leaf and flower and tree, and to draw from living animals so as to know their movements and habits. Photographs he considers useful when familiarity with their subjects has been already acquired by sketches from life of sectional structure; the aim of art being the representation of some form of life, expressed with strict economy of detail and accurate calculation as to the effect of light on the work.

The most valuable training of all is to see old work in its proper surroundings with the effects of time and use, and thus observe the amount of labor and finish which tells, and its relation to breadth of design and the simplification of detail. Our author is right in denouncing slavish imitations of ancient work for modern purposes; but when the question of restoration of an ancient building comes up, it seems unreasonable to blame the workman for deception because he has so closely followed the old that his part cannot be detected. Mr. Jack cites the choir stalls and screen of Winchester Cathedral as a case in point. It seems to us that the only blamable proceeding was the staining of the old and new together, thus destroying the texture of the wood and the patina of time. In this disapproval of faithful restoration our author shows himself to be a close follower of Ruskin.

The book is full of excellent illustrations.

Boston: The Place and the People. By M. A. DeWolfe Howe. Illustrated by Louis A. Holman. Macmillan Co. 1903. 8vo, pp. xv., 397.

Boston "is not an accident," wrote Emerson of his native city, "but a seat of humanity, of men of principle obeying a sentiment and marching loyally whither that should lead them; so that its annals are great historical lines, inextricably national—part of the history of political liberty." The felicity of this characterization will be felt by all readers of Mr. Howe's book. In the prosecution of his aim, not to write a continuous narrative, but "to pass in review the salient facts of Boston history,

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and to gain some acquaintance with the persons chiefly concerned in them," he has set forth most clearly and freshly its individuality, that which differentiates it from other New World cities. With apt quotation and anecdote from letters, diaries, and old-time records, he graphically pictures the colonists and Revolutionary fathers and their town. The larger part of his book, however, is devoted to the nineteenth century, the three main topics being the Unitarian controversy, the men who made Boston for a time the literary centre of the country, and the anti-slavery propaganda. These chapters show careful and sympathetic study; the still delicate subject of the religious movement inaugurated by Emerson being treated skilfully and with commendable impartiality. Of greater general interest is the account of Boston's part in the emancipation of the slave, beginning with the publication of the *Liberator*, January 1, 1831, and culminating with the attack on Fort Wagner and the death of Robert Gould Shaw. The main facts in the recent history of the city are briefly given, and the author closes with an appreciative glance at present conditions, and a timely reminder that "the people of Boston are rich in the inheritances that are good to cultivate and to transmit."

Considering the class of readers whom Mr. Howe evidently had in mind, he has been wise in his selections from the mass of material at his disposal. Much that is curious as well as instructive is to be found in them; for example, the fact that the Puritan horror of the stage prevailed as late as 1791, when plays were advertised as "moral lectures," illustrating certain virtues or vices. "Otway's 'Venice Preserved' appeared as such a lecture in five parts, 'in which the dreadful effects of conspiracy will be exemplified.' To make sure, a little later, that the point of 'Macbeth' should not be missed, it was introduced by 'A Dialogue on the Horrid Crime of Murder, by Mr. and Mrs. Smith.'" Great care has evidently been taken to secure accuracy, and we have noticed but one error, the statement that there was erected a "monument to William Thomas Green Morton in the Boston Public Garden." The fact is, that it bears neither name of the two contestants, Drs. Jackson and Morton, for the honor of the discovery of ether, but, with conscientious impartiality, it is a monument (to recall the famous joke of Dr. Holmes) "To E[i]ther." Of course, in a volume of this size there must be many omissions of things of interest. We regret, however, that Mr. Howe did not find space to refer to the influence which the Boston press, under the guidance of J. T. Buckingham, Nathan Hale, their contemporaries and successors, had upon national and State politics, and upon the formation of public opinion on the great questions of the day.

The illustrations, by Mr. Louis A. Holman, are well chosen and interesting, and add much to the attractiveness of the book. His drawings of historic buildings are of unusual merit. We could have wished that, with the grasshopper vane and the pine-tree shilling, room had been found for the historic codfish.

Old English Doorways. By Henry Tanner, jr., and W. Galsworthy Davie. London: Batsford; New York: Scribner. 1903. Pp. 44. Sixty-nine plates.

This attractive volume consists of a series of photographs of old English doorways from Tudor times to the end of the eighteenth century made by W. Galsworthy Davie, whose previous work in similar fields (*e. g.*, 'Old Houses in Kent and Sussex') has shown him to be not merely a skilful artist with the camera, but a man of discernment, and of wise choice in the selection of his subjects. The plates are accompanied by an essay, historical and descriptive, by Henry Tanner, jr., whose ability to clothe with interest a definite period of architecture in England was recently demonstrated by the folio upon the work of Inigo Jones, for which he wrote the text.

The present book, beginning with a few examples of doorways of the latest Gothic in which a strong Renaissance influence is seen, leads us along by many specimens of the curious and entertaining Elizabethan style, when all was confusion and groping, to the days of Inigo Jones, when a great light shone upon architecture in England. Some of the most beautiful plates are taken from this time and from that other equally splendid period when Sir Christopher Wren was the centre of all things architectural. If we miss the charm and freshness the naïveté of the earlier work, in this section of the book, we find its place taken by a stateliness and dignity that well reflect the manners of the age. Frigidity was the bane of the style, but of this there appears little here; the examples, especially of the later or Georgian period, being chosen for their freedom and picturesqueness. Occasionally, some subject not strictly a doorway gives variety to the pages, as the charming porch at Cap Mill in Gloucestershire or the garden gateway at Ross in Herefordshire. The series closes with a long series of highly interesting and varied hooded doorways, frequently with carved brackets and shells of great beauty, taken chiefly from provincial towns. Quite the most charming of these, and indeed by all odds the most picturesque plate in the book, is the door of the Choristers' School in the Close at Salisbury. Broad and most inviting steps lead to a curiously quoined doorway sheltered by a hood of great simplicity. The whole entrance is embowered in vines, and the first sight of it gives a thrill of pleasure.

Apart from the interest of the plates, the essay is a thoughtful one, following, as it does, the course of doorway design in England for two centuries, and tracing the influence of materials and environment upon such design.

American Tariff Controversies in the Nineteenth Century. By Edward Stanwood. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1903.

Fifty years ago this country was in a fair way to adopt free trade. After several successful attempts at restriction, it became evident that the opposing forces were too strong, and in 1833 Clay offered his "compromise" tariff, under which duties were gradually reduced to moderate figures. The collapse of the whole system of finance in 1837 caused the low duties to be raised in 1842, but in 1846 the tariff was adjusted with regard to revenue rather than protection, and this policy prevailed until the civil war changed the whole tendency of our Government. Since that era protection has reigned supreme, and there is every reason to believe that it will maintain itself indefinitely. Duties are at the highest, the expenditure of the Government has increased enormously; and even were there any considerable number of voters in favor of free trade, they could not convince the country that it was practicable. In fact, there are probably not enough free traders to obtain official recognition as a party. Protectionism is the creed of the capitalists, the labor unions, the politicians, and, to a considerable extent, of the professors of economics.

We cannot say that Mr. Stanwood's treatise throws much light on the causes that have brought about the change. The abstracts of the debates in Congress are insufferably tedious, and the controversies are no more worth chronicling than the quarrels of the kites and crows. Of a discussion in 1830, the author says:

> "Thereupon ensued one of the most tedious and fruitless debates in the history of Congress. Day after day the members on both sides of the question delivered set speeches on the tariff, of interminable length, and quite devoid of fresh arguments and novel illustrations."

This criticism might have been extended to nearly all such debates. Tariffs are not made as a result of legislative deliberation. Professor Taussig's 'Tariff History' tells us all that it is important to know concerning the course of events; and the record of the various shades of doctrine and of the motley fallacies employed in defending them is no more edifying than the account of the disputes between the Homo-ousians and the Homoi-ousians. Mr. Stanwood's purpose, however, seems to be to defend protectionism by representing it to have made the country prosperous. For this undertaking he does not appear very well qualified. His dialectic seldom rises above the level of *post hoc ergo propter hoc*, and his attempts at connecting taxation and prosperity are almost precisely the same as those selected in Mill's 'Logic' to illustrate fallacious reasoning.

A few passages, quoted at random, require no comment. Thus, it is asserted that business instantly revived after the passage of the tariff of 1842 because of that act. "No other cause is assignable as having produced that effect. The country was in a state of unparalleled depression; the act was passed, and business revived. There was no other change in the situation either at home or abroad." It is also alleged that the trade in grain is independent of tariffs: "The utmost freedom of trade, the abolition of all customs duties at American ports, would not have increased the demand in England for American flour to the extent of a single barrel, nor would it have made the barrel of American flour a penny cheaper to the foreign purchaser." In the author's view, "there is always a tendency to overimportation." He quotes President Taylor as "high contemporary authority" for the proposition that manufactures languished under the tariff of 1846. The fact that immigrants poured into the country in great numbers "cannot be taken as even corroborative evidence that the country was prosperous." "It is generally true . . . that importations have increased at a more rapid rate when the so-called restrictive

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system was in full force than when duties have been low"; but "it is not suggested that the object of a protective tariff is to encourage importations—rather the contrary is true." It is no more than fair to say that the tone of the author is dignified and free from virulence; but his work amounts to little more than a repetition of old fallacies and time-worn platitudes.

Negro Education in the South. By A. A. Gunby. New Orleans: H. C. Thomason.

It is a real pleasure to come on a book, even so small an one as this, which is full of faith that, with proper moral and manual education, not forgetting the three R's, the negro is capable of becoming a better man and citizen than he has had a chance of being up to the present time. We have been told so much lately of his inability to be benefited by any training save that of field labor, superintended by the white man, that we cannot too cordially welcome Mr. Gunby's hopeful views; for there must be many of the better educated men of the South who share them. Gov. Andrew always maintained that only the best men of that section could lead it back into cordial relations with the Union; and when we find that a Southerner of high standing, and presumably many of his friends, would have all educated negroes vote, and would exclude only ignorance, we can feel that the race problem is nearing a better solution than the late utterances of the Southern press have led us to expect.

In his introduction Mr. Gunby puts the following pertinent question to those who "are too ready to despair of the benefits . . . of education to the negro race": "Within one generation of slavery, with no adequate teachers, with all the obstacles and horrors of the period of reconstruction, . . . how can it be said that negro education has had a fair trial?" He goes on to remind them that, in the South, "it has long since been inflexibly decreed by unwritten law that white teachers must not teach negro schools"; and that though "the Southern States have continued to tax themselves for the support of negro schools, in many places the funds for this purpose have been indifferently and unfairly applied by incompetent or partisan school boards." In addition to this increasing evil, the want of "suitable teachers and decent schoolhouses to teach in" has been sorely felt. In spite, however, of all these and other difficulties, "the large body of ignorant negroes" who "are thriftless, and work and behave themselves alone through fear," is decreasing and scattering, and "the number of negroes is increasing who have bought and paid for small farms, from forty to sixty acres." Further on, Mr. Gunby says: "All they want is fair treatment, perfect liberty, education, and, most of all, a good example and good advice from their white neighbors."

There are, perhaps inevitably, some curious and paradoxical statements in this little book. For example, the author tells us that "there is a public sentiment" in the South "which demands that the races be kept absolutely distinct. . . . . This is the prompting of a divine race instinct"; while a passage in his introduction states that "in a town of 10,000 inhabitants 500 negresses are supported in idleness by white paramours." One could wish the divine instinct a little keener! Then he speaks of a young Louisiana lady who is teaching negroes in West Africa as a missionary, but who could not have done this at home on account of public opinion, and presently tells of Stonewall Jackson teaching a negro Sunday-school, and adds that no "grander picture of him could be drawn than one which represents him standing with open book before his little school of pickaninnies." Surely we may hope that white missionaries will be allowed "at home," where the need of them is at least as great as in West Africa. We are further told that there are "thousands of wretched women in the city of New York with but one garment, and that a ragged one," while "there are no unclad negro women in the South." Assuming for a moment that the facts are as here stated, it should be added that the influx of immigrants into New York, sometimes amounting to 100,000 in a single month, never ceases, and that were an equal number of ignorant negroes poured into any Southern city, probably a similar state of destitution would follow.

Whether or not Mr. Gunby is right as to the complete separation of whites and blacks being needful for the good of both, we are cordially in agreement with him as to the importance of every bit of rational and practical education that can be given the negro, and the menace which, failing this, his barbarism and ignorance may become to the country.

Pioneer Spaniards in America. By William Henry Johnson. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1903.

A handsome, well printed and illustrated octavo, with a number of full-page illustrations, mostly reproductions of facsimiles, among them that of the first map (1538) on which the name "America" appears, the book named above is a popular series of sketches of the principal Spanish discoveries in the first half of the sixteenth century in North America, followed by a glance at the reconquest of New Mexico and by an appendix devoted to a short essay on pre-Columbian culture in Mexico.

It is gratifying to note the spirit of fairness and of justice displayed by the author in this unassuming volume. Thus, he says of the historian Prescott in the preface:

"To speak of the conquest of Mexico and omit a reference to Mr. Prescott's classic work would be unpardonable. Equally inexcusable would it be to commend it without a word of caution. One cannot ignore the fact that he wrote before the era of first-hand anthropological study, so distinctive of our time. . . . He did the best that was possible in the then existing state of knowledge, and produced a monumental work that remains an ornament of our literature. That it is pervaded with an atmosphere of romanticism quite unhistorical was an inevitable result of the limitations of the time."

Not only in the case of Prescott does the author show his inclination to absolute fairness. Following the example so well set by C. F. Lummis, he metes out the same justice to the Spanish pioneers, and especially to the Crown of Spain in its treatment of the Indians. While condemning any wrong perpetrated upon the natives, he says (p. 32):

"Let us give Spain her due. In these sketches we have seen instances enough of savage cruelty. But these were the acts of individual Spaniards. The aim of the Spanish Government was to treat the Indians kindly, and, in the main, it was faithfully carried out. The whole policy of Spain was directed to fitting the Indians to share in the national life, making them part of the people."

This point of view is far superior to that of sweeping vituperation characteristic of similar literature in former times, and commends the book to the sympathies of modern readers interested in the subject of Spanish-American colonization.

Mr. Johnson does not claim to have made original researches. The sources which he acknowledges as bases for his book are all recent. Hence we cannot apply to his sketches any searching historical criticism in detail. His judgment of the character and actions of Las Casas is still consistent with impressions that will vanish in time as the career of this honest but utterly unpractical enthusiast is more carefully studied, and therefore better understood. The chapter devoted to Bartolomé de las Casas is the only really weak section in this very readable popular work.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ainsworth, William Harrison. Vol. I. The Tower of London: A Historical Romance. Illustrated by Cruikshank. New edition. Vol. II. Windsor Castle. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Analysis of the Hunting Field: Being a Series of Sketches of the Principal Characters that Compose One, etc. D. Appleton & Co.

Bismarck's Letters to his Wife from the Seat of War—1870-1871. Translated by Armin Harder. New York: D. Appleton & Co. $1 net.

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